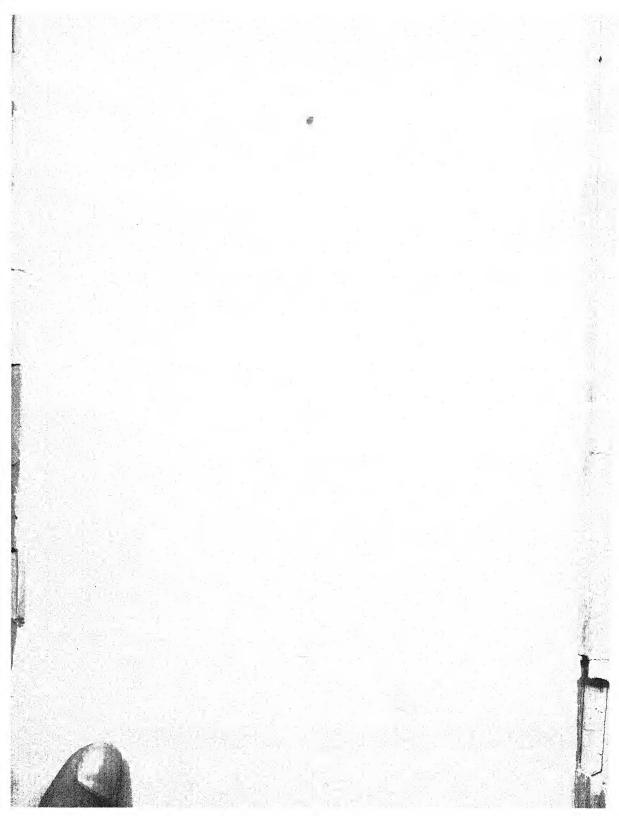
## INDO-ARYAN LITERATURE AND CULTURE [ ORIGINS ]





# Indo-Aryan. Literature And Culture (Origins)

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#### **PREFACE**

Indo-Aryan Literature is overladen with unsolved enigmas, and Indo-Aryan Culture as evidenced in that Literature possesses features not to be met with anywhere else in the world.

The corner-stone of that culture, Varnāśrama-dharma, has been a standing puzzle. The extraordinarily heterogeneous composition of the Atharva Veda appears to repel all attempts at a rational explanation. The unrestrained glorification in the Vrātya Book of that Veda of the despised heretic and unbeliever of later days has been dismissed by scholars of repute as- 4 too abstruse and absurd" a composition to admit of analysis and interpretation. Where, again, can one find such unprecedented mutilation of admittedly scriptural material as is seen in the Vedic Redactions? The Vrātyastoma ritual literature as a whole is a very museum of confusing contrarieties and inconsistencies. The literature of the Brahmana Books has struck unprejudiced (and even sympathetic) foreign observers as the very limiting point of perverted literary ingenuity; and yet this literature is seen to be the nidus out of which have apparently sprung into existence the finest crop of philosophical speculations and religious conceptions of undying vitality. The relation of the Purānas to the Śrauta literature is admittedly a problem of incalculable complexity and difficulty. The "inviolable Sūta", the "brahmabandhu Māgadha", the "rājanyabandhus" to whom mahāśrotriya Brāhmans must go to be schooled in the Vedanta (crown and summit, that is to say, of the

Vedas) are enigmas, in appearance scarcely less untractable than the enigma of the Eka-Vrātya of the Atharva Veda.

So far not only has no organised attack been directed against this multitude of by no means unrelated riddles; what attempts have been made to solve them in detail (casual and haphazard at best) have made no pretence whatever to following any reasonably scientific or rational method. Facile assumptions and, worse still, speculations motivated by prejudices covert and express, so far from clearing up the confusion, have tended only to aggravate it.

The author is convinced that the time has arrived for a planned endeavour to solve all these intertwisted problems, and according to methods which will appeal to the scientifically minded. He is fully pursuaded too that he himself has been able to lay hands on clues which must ultimately lead to their right solution. He realises nevertheless that relatively greater importance has at this stage of Indo-Aryan scholarship to be assigned to the question of method than to the immediate results to be achieved by its application.

The discriminating reader, he hopes, will not fail to notice that throughout his thesis, whilst he has appeared to be (as he could not well avoid being) concerned mainly with the right analysis, interpretation and co-ordination of his material, the author has been almost as keenly interested in the method which he thinks should be adopted in handling that material. What he has designated his "methodology" will be seen to run like a thread of wire through the entire thesis. The reader is distinctly apprised of it in the brief Introductory. It is conscientiously put into operation (though without pointed reference) in the five following Sections. He advisedly waited for the

completion of this preliminary course of practical demonstration before presenting a direct exposition of the method itself in Section VII; and the procedure therein out-lined has been overtly followed in the remaining Sections. The application of the method to the "Draupadī Saga" in the concluding Section might usefully have been deferred until the author had received and profited by the views and opinions of competent critics upon the previous portions of the Book, the subject-matter of which proved more apt for the application of his method than the more deliberately and systematically perverted saga matter of the over-Brāhmaṇised extant Purāṇas. But life being short, the author has felt constrained to forgo that advantage.

The author has been persuaded to summarise here, in the briefest possible outline, the conclusions at which he has arrived.

He is entirely convinced: that the Indo-Aryan Literature-cum-Culture is not the single-lined metabolic evolution it is generally believed to be of a pure-blooded Aryan organism; that on the other hand it is a synthetic product, whereof the material elements were in the main of Non-Aryan Eastern Vrātya origin; that nevertheless it was the highly educated Aryan brain and the organising Aryan genius which played the determinative part in giving that product the shape and direction it is seen to have taken.

He is convinced that intensively and extensively the Aryan settlements were very much more educated than the bulk of the population in the Vrātya East; that the ruling Vrātya Rājanyas nevertheless were a highly cultivated race, intellectually and otherwise far in advance even of the Aryan Brāhmans (the most highly educated as well as the ruling element in the Vedic

Settlements), the rest of the Vrātya population being sunk in (not poverty, but) general ignorance and superstition.

Of the Indo-Aryan Literature taken as a whole, the Upanisads and the Purāṇas, the author is further persuaded, were basically derived from purely Eastern Vrātya sources, the Trayī (Rk, Sāma and Yajur Vedas) having been (in a similar manner) basically of purely Vedic Aryan origination.

The synthesis of the two cultures, the author has endeavoured to show, was first brought about in Magadha; that it was made possible and even easy of accomplishment owing to the Vrātyastoma Conversion ceremony; that this was a political rather than a religious ceremony which the early Aryan settlers of the Panjab had evolved from the necessity in which they stood of constantly replenishing their man-power in the environment of struggle and strife in which they were cast; that the Vrātvastoma ceremony which "Aryanised" the Eastern Vrātya peoples and countries was no mere passive bridge, for in material ways it conditioned that synthesis. Caste, for instance, which was unknown in the Vedic Aryan Settlements, got access into and foothold in the Aryan scheme of life through it. Asrama too, the author has shown, being Upanișadic in origin, came from the Vrātya East.

And contrary to his original preconceptions, it was irresistibly borne in upon him that no people were freer from caste-consciousness and religious fanaticism than were the early Aryan Brāhmans in whose plastic hands fittingly fell the task of starting and subsequently organising this synthetic culture, which for that reason fully deserves the designation of "Neo-Aryanism" and not "Neo-Non-Aryanism". Also, he desires it to be noted at this place,

that the one just mentioned has not been the only preconception and personal predilection which the author has found himself constrained to sacrifice under the suasive influence of data which came into his hands in the course of his investigations.

The author would incur grave risks of misrepresenting himself were he to attempt to compress the matter of Sections X-XII further than he has done in the Synopsis of Contents. He will simply recount his findings concerning the several stages in the evolution of the Indo-Aryan Literature in the very baldest outline.

The originally transmitted saga-stuff concerning Eastern Vrātya royalties which later got transformed into the highly Brāhmaṇised extant written Purāṇas came first in order of time. The Ātharvaṇ Collection came next, being the first representative of the Literature of the Synthesis and having originated in the practical demand that arose in Vrātya land for a Priests' Vade Mecum for Aryan Brāhmaṇs officiating for (pro forma Aryanised) Vrātya yajmānas. As a repercussion thereof arose the movement for collecting and "Redacting" the orthodox Vedic ritualistic material.

The Ātharvaṇic Collection, he has shown, had unavoidably to be much more than what may be understood to belong to a Priests' Manual of the present day. In it are to be found the seeds of the Upaniṣads and of exegesis of the type which reared itself into such monstrous proportions in the Brāhmaṇa Books. Ātharvaṇic intrusions into the Trayī which the Redaction failed to keep out the author has endeavoured to indicate in Section XII. In the concluding Section he has tried his hand at the immensely more difficult task of restoring the saga-stuff, brāhmaṇised well-nigh beyond recognition, in the extant Mahābhārata.

In the course of developing his thesis, the author found opportunities which he utilised to follow the course of evolution of the Upanişad Vedānta (in broad outline necessarily) and to indicate its relation to the Sānkhya, Yoga and Vedānta Darŝanas, and to Buddhism. The author will be sorry if the reader should miss his views on what he has designated the Redaction-Renascence stage in the evolution of Indo-Aryan Literature.

And the reader will discover that what have struck scholars and investigators as absurdities and insoluble puzzles find (almost without exception) their own natural place and position in the newly orientated world in which he has placed them.

Remaking a lost world is a strangely exhilerating experience in an author. It makes equal appeals upon this intellectual and artistic equipments, and not rarely he finds himself confronted by situations which prove irresistible in their humorous implications.

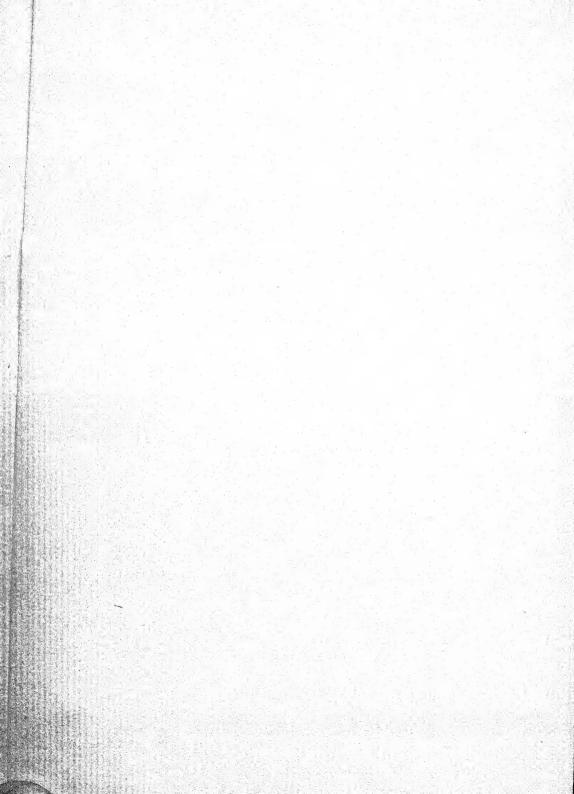
But the work nevertheless was not plain sailing all the way. There were occasions indeed when he found his path crossed by snags. His troubles over refractory Sanskrit texts were, in several instances, smoothed for him by Dr. S. K. De, Head of the Department of Sanskrit and Bengali of the Dacca University, and Mr. Guruprasanna Bhattacharya of the same Department. Professor Fück of the Department of Arabic and Islamic Studies and Professor S. N. Bose of the Department of Physics (of the same University) helped him to an understanding of Professor J. W. Hauer's recent book "Der Vrātya" written in German, a language with which the author is entirely unacquainted. Professor Bose, he takes this opportunity to acknowledge, could not possibly have taken more pains over Professor

Hauer's rather difficult book than he did for me, had he himself been writing this Book.

The author's trail and Professor J. W. Hauer's have lain so far apart that he did not find it possible either to use or to contest his views. He has in fact contested no views which did not actually cross his path. His task has been pre-eminently constructive (in a palaeontological sense, of course).

Ramna, DACCA.

N. N. GHOSE.



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#### Synopsis of Contents.

§ 1. Introductory. Indo-Aryan written records contain no history but abundance of material not yet exploited for writing it. Arrangement of literary material in chronological and geographical order why, instead of promoting, is retarding the reconstruction of Indo-Aryan history.

Pseudo-histories and the prejudices in which they have originated.

Chronological and historical arrangements of literary material by themselves furnish no clues to events which happened and forces and circumstances by which they were conditioned. History to be written should be the history of the interplay of these forces and circumstances, giving rising to institutions which are distinctively Indo-Aryan.

Problem akin to those confronting palaeontologists.

History to be recovered, broadly stated, history of Varna-āśrama-dharma.

The Vrātyastoma ritual ceremonials in the Brāhmana literature and the Atharva Veda, viewed in the light of correlated material from the Purānas, point definitely to the essentially Eastern non-Vedic-Aryan origins of that institution.

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#### § 2. The Vrātyastomas.

The four Vrātyastomas: (i) The Conversion stoma. Conversion was to Aryanism, not to specific castes which

x ii

did not exist in the vis. Brāhmans did not officiate at this ceremony, which became obsolete before the Sūtra scholiasts began writing on it.

(ii) The Excommunicate-regeneration (Ninditābakīrņin) stoma, also by origin pre-caste ceremony, Brāhman rtvijas officiating. (iii) and (iv) The Sāvitri-patita stemas.

Svarga- $k\bar{a}ma$  motive of the last two. Motive of the first two primarily secular. Virtual desuetude of these two forms the reason why "svarga- $k\bar{a}ma$ " came to be the one expressed object of  $Vr\bar{a}tyastemas$  in the later  $S\bar{u}tra$  works.

Conversion Vratyastoma, carried a stage back behind the Panchavimsa Brahmana in the Baudhayana Srauta Sutra: ritual performance colourable only, intention to be Aryanised overtly expressed being all that was necessary.

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 $\S$  3. The Conversion Vratyastoma a Political not a Religious Ritual admissible for Aryans and Non-Aryans alike. Largest accession to Aryanism, from the Non-Aryan East.

Primitive Vedic Aryan communities' paramount need for keeping up their fighting strength by a constant supply of men of muscles originated this stoma. Imagined bar to admission of Non-Aryans unfounded. Language and complexion no bar to admission. Object and motive of this stoma political, not religious or social. Largest accession to the man-power of the Indo-Aryan world through this stoma came from the Non-Aryan Vrātya East.

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The Vedic Aryan viś-world as depicted in the Pañch-aviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. Peacelessness thereof as exemplified by the Yādava clan-confederacy, portrayed in the Purāṇas. Brāhmaṇ-Kṣatriya rivalries.

The Vrātya world similarly exemplified by the Magadha Empire of Jarāsandha as portrayed in the same literature.

The Pṛthu-Vaiṇya Purāṇa legend analysed and interpreted. Replacement of Veṇa, the Aryan tribal chieftain, by the consecrated sovereign ruler of many peoples. Pṛthu, a territorial King who commands allegiance by divine right. Pṛthu's world same as Jarāsandha's.

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- § 5. A Chapter (mainly) of Historical Romance:
- (i) The Aryan Brāhman in the Eka-Vrātya's Court.
- (ii) The Great  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$ -Ekaha-Sattra. (iii) The Composition of the  $Vr\bar{a}tya$  Book of the Atharva Veda.

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festive Royal ceremonies. Religious beliefs of the Vrātya Their esoteric theosophy. (Attitude of the Rājanyas towards the superstitions of the common folk). The Brahman emigrants' audience with the Eka-Vratya. Political talks, specially as concerned the desirability of Aryan settlements coming within the Peace of his Empire and sharing its material benefits. The Eka-Vrātya in private life. Impression his personality makes upon the exiles. The latter's invitation to the Emperor with his people to join the Aryan communion by Vrātyastoma, as a step to claiming hegemony over the Aryan viŝas. Vrātya-Brāhmana Concordat. The benefits to accrue therefrom to each. The Great Conversion-cum-Rajasūya Sattra. Reflection thereof in the Pauranic account of Prthu's Yajña.

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The leading Brāhman exile raised to the position of Chancellor (Royal Purohit). The Purohit's willing discipleship in regard to Upanişad doctorines under his Royal Yajmān. Composition of the Vrātya Book and the Bhauma Sūkta of the Atharva Veda. Identity of Pṛthu and the Eka-Vrātya.

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Analysis of the Vrātya Book; Paryāya 1: The Vrātya is a brahmavid, and through power generated by the knowledge of Brahman attains supreme secular authority and thus becomes the Eka-Vrātya. Paryāya 2: Spiritual brahmavid Eka-Vrātya. Vedic triumphs of the Upanisadic bases follow his allegorical triumphant progress as though (inter alia) they were his Magadha and Pumschalī. (The Vrātya Royal institution of Pumschalīs) Paryāyas 3 to 6: Same motif. Paryāyas 8 and 9: The Eka-Vrātya's socio-political environment. Paryāyas 10 to 13: Straight political propaganda favouring the Aryanised Vrātya Emyeror's suzerainty claim. Paryāyas 14 to 18: Allegory tailing off into meaninglessness.

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§ 7. Concerning Methodology, or the Palaeontology of History.

Indo-Aryan literature having taken shape as literature (and not as history) long after the history of the age in which it was evolved had happened and been forgotten, clue to this history has to be sought, if at all, in tell-tale "fossils" found deposited in that literature. "Fossil" deposits of other ages (older or more recent), detectable chiefly by their "incongruity". Instances of tell-tale "incongruities". Aid to be derived from properly regulated "scientific imagination". Appraisement of self-disserving statements in Brāhmaṇ-made literature. Two instances thereof. Why the Rājanyas to whom copyright in original Upaniṣadic speculations is openly conceded in this literature must have been the converted Vrātya Rājanyas and not the Aryan Kṣatriyas of the viŝas.

Contemporary "fossil" deposits in the Atharva Veda.

"Fossil" deposits in the Puranas. The recovery of the original Draupadī Saga from the excessively Brāhmanised Mahābhārata, an apt subject for historicopalaeontological exercise. 53-58

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Demons and Divinities of Vrātya Atharva land.

"Making of Gods after Governors", as it happened in Aryan and Aryanised Vrātya lands. Aryanised Vrātya deities: The Trinity (Brāhmā, Viṣṇu, Rudra, merged by Upaniṣadic dialectics in the Brahman-Ātman, but retaining its mythologic concreteness in popular belief). Vrātyastoma

Conversion of the (minor) Daiva Vrātyas for admission into the Aryan Pantheon. (Mahābhiṣeka-Rājasūya of Indra His transformation from a blustering bully to a voluptuary. Forcible entry of Rudra-Mahādeva into the Vedic Pantheon).

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§ 9 The  $S\overline{u}ta$  and the  $M\overline{a}gadha$ . The Fever-Charm  $S\overline{u}kta$ .

The Sūta-Māgadha "enigma".

The Sūta-riddle. Attempts at unravelment in (i) the "Vedic Index" and (ii) the Vāyu Purāṇa. "Inviolability" attribute of the Sūta, derived from his Brāhmaṇ-hood not from his herald-hood.

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Spread of the synthetic movement beyond Atharvanic Vrātya land. Significance of the Purāṇas' attempt to frame a single genealogical tree for all ruling classes of every caste origin.

How the designations of the higher castes, like those of the higher Vrātya gods, came to be Aryanistic and not Vrātya.

Caste-consciousness deepens through entry into the caste-scheme of the Aryan Brāhmans. Rapid displacement and degradation of the Sūta-Māgadhas. Evidence furnished by the Atharva Veda, regarded as (in the main)

a Priests' Manual for use by Brāhman officiating priests in Vrātya land.

(AtharvaVeda, a Priests' Manual and more. Heterogeneity of its contents accounted for).

Resourcefulness of the Sūtas.

Progressive degradation of the Māgadha. The designation of brahmabandhu. Degrading part assigned to him in the Sūtra works (not in the PB) due to misinferpretation of the texts of Paryāya 2 of the Vrātya Book, after the Vrātyastoma ritual practices as originally conceived had fallen into desuetude and their original purposes forgotten and transformed.

Great historical value of the Baudhāyana Vrātyasloma texts. The Gaupālāyana-Gandharvāyana legend as evidence of the westward march of the Ātharvanic Neo-Aryanism to Kuru-Pāńchāla.

The Fever-charm Sūkta of the AV, a pure-bred Aryan charm brought by Ātharvaṇic Brāhmaṇ priests from their homeland and included in the Manual. Northern India, sanitarily speaking, not very greatly changed since. "Massemigration" theory of Vedic Aryan diffusion into the Eastern countries discounted by this amongst other evidence. The oka of the takman.

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§10. The Origin and Development of Indo-Aryan Literature. The "Smṛti" and "Sruti" Stages of that Literature. The Redaction-Renascence.

The Neo-Aryanism arising in Atharva land from the fusion of two opposing cultures and polities inundates Northern India and materially conditions the character of the entire Indo-Aryan literature.

The contents of this literature: the Vedas, the Brāhmaņas, the Upaniṣads, the Sūtras (Śrauta and Gṛhya) and the Purāṇas.

Three stages in the evolution of this literature: (i) a "smārta" stage; (ii) an oral "śrauta" stage; (iii) a written "śrauta" stage. External impetus required for transition from one to the next. Special measures called for to preserve the oral "śrauta" matter intact before it is given written form, which for all the precautions adopted can be only partially successful. Evaluation of purely linguistic and other like tests for determining the age of the matter of this literature.

First oral "Śraula" Collection, the Atharva Veda. Though, from the point of view of its collectors, heterodox and lacking necessarily in canonicity, it did not also at any time arouse opposition or animosity. Reason therefor. Ātharvaṇic Collection why in the main gṛhya and not śrauta in character, in the technical sense. Incompatibility between the Ātharvaṇic gṛhya matter and the gṛhya matter of the Gṛhya Sūtras explained: they concerned two generically distinct households, one Ātharvaṇic (originally Vrātya) and the other Vedic Aryan. Why in general the character of the former naimitlika, of the latter nitya.

Necessarily mixed composition of the Atharvan Collection: (i) Low-grade naimittika grhya rites dominated by the spell and sorcery motive; (ii) Some normal ceremonies, as concerning specially the Strī and Rājakarmāṇi; (iii) Very superior Upaniṣadic theosophy; (iv) Some purely Vedic-Aryan importations; (v) Some propaganda for King and Brāhman; (vi) Some poetical pieces.

All non-Aryan material, except the Rājakarmāņi more or less Brāhmanised before inclusion in the oral Ātharvanic Collection. Rājakarmāņi excessively Brāhmanised later for inclusion in the hieratic ritual scheme of the Yajur Vedas and the Brāhmana literature. Rājakarmāņi, all Vrātya in origin, enter the Vedic Aryan scheme of yajñas and sattras under Royal patronage, showing the widespread extension

of Vrātya political forms and institutions over Vedic-Aryan settlements.

Repercussion of the Ātharvaṇ Collection on the Aryan mind, chiefly in the "Middle Country" lying between the purely Aryan settlements and the purely Ātharvaṇ countries, creates a conservative demand for collection and preservation intact of the hieratic mantras, song-practices and sacred rituals of the Vedic Aryan settlements. "Redaction" of the Trayī. The "Redaction" demand converts the sacred Vedic Aryan ritual ceremonials from "smārta" traditional practices to oral "śrauta" literature. Geographical location of the "Redaction" movement.

Violence done to the ritual material by the "Redaction". The Vāyu Purāṇa author's complaint in regard thereto.

The Redaction movement, as a whole, a veritable Renascence movement. Peculiarities of this Indo-Aryan Renascence which make European analogies inapplicable to explain it. Avid absorption by Aryan Brāhmaṇs of Upaniṣadic learning from Vrātya Rājanyas an active phase of that movement.

§ 11. The *Purāṇas*: Their Special Affinities with the Atharva Veda.

Four stages in the evolution of the Purāṇa literature: (i) When it was purely saga-stuff in the recollection of bard-priests in the monarchic Vrātya countries of the East. As oral "śrauta" literature, this oral minstrelsy ante-dated the Ātharvaṇ oral Collection. (ii) The same subjected to some kind of Brāhmaṇ censorship by Ātharvaṇic priests on their accession to power in Vrātya land. (iii) The Redaction Brāhmaṇising stage. Incorporation of Vedic Aryan Itihāsas and Gāthās, and the making over of the synthesised collection (still oral) to Brāhmaṇ-taught Sūtas. (iv) The extant written Purāṇas of manifestly Brāhmaṇ authorship.

Commentators' attempt to confine the term "Purāṇa" as used in the Śrauta texts to analogous stuff contained in Brāhmaṇa Books, not tenable. Chhāndogya Āraṇyaka texts specifically correlating the Purāṇas (designated in that Āraṇyaka as the Fifth Veda) with the Atharva Veda, true to facts.

Common features of the Atharva Veda and the Puranas: (1) Origination in identical habitat; (ii) Free Brāhmanisation of the original material; (iii) King-cum-Priest glorification stuff pointing to their being Concordat literature par excellence.

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§ 12. Atharvanic Influences on the Srauta Literature.

Failure of the "Redaction" to exclude Atharvanic intrusions into the Trayī.

Ātharvaņic deposits

- (ii) In the RgVeda: The Xth Mandala. The Asva Sūktas. The Puruṣa-Sūkta.
- (ii) In the Yajur Vedas: Mixed Mantra and Brāhmaṇa composition manner. Upaniṣadic interpolations. The Puruṣamedha Sūkta. The Royal rites (the last-mentioned inclusion testifying to the political as well as cultural subordination of the Madhyadeśa to Attarvaṇic domination, demonstrating thereby the westward march of the Neo-Aryanism of Vrātya Atharva land). The Śatarudriya and other texts concerning Aryanised Vrātya deities.
- (iii) In the Brāhmaṇa titerature. Its highly sophisticated technique taken over from the Atharva Veda and pushed to extreme lengths.

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Brāhmaṇa Books as a whole written literature from the beginning. Such abundant written literature presupposes access to a liberal supply of suitable writing gear and tackle. Source thereof. Deltaic Bengal?

Appendix A. The Darśana overgrowth of the Upaniṣad Vedānta. Buddhism's relation to it. The Sānkhya-Vedānta-Yoga tripod of the Upaniṣad Vedānta. Appraisement of the Yoga system. Criticism that the Religion of the Upaniṣads is non-ethical. A scientific dynamic religion.

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Karma-Vāda, central doctrine of Varna-Aśrama-dharma. Caste versus class. Vedic viśas knew no castes; later society is found riddled with castes.

Aryan Brāhmans did not make castes or see castes in the making. They propounded theories to explain castes or explain them away, and also tried to classify castes, after they had come upon the fully formed institution in Vrātya land. The late varna-sankara-anuloma-pratiloma theory of the "Origin of Castes", formulated after fully developed caste-consciousness and pride had changed their original detached outlook. Brāhman-Rājanya caste domination a result of the Ātharvanic Concordat.

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mature householder's whole outlook is directed to the pitrloka of oblations.

The Vedic svarga of oblations how came to be contemned by Upanisad Doctors as a paradise for fools. Brahmacharya and householdership transformed into āŝramas (qualifying stages for the attainment of Brahman) by the Upanisads. The Brahmachārin Sūkta of the Atharva Veda.

The compounded varna-āśrama cult perfected and systematised by the Brāhmans in the Purāṇas and Dharma Sūtras.

The Atharva Veda's progress towards attaining and the title of Brahma Veda—How the Ātharvaṇic priests came to supply the need of a fourth priest (brahman) at sattras and yajñās, the same arising as much from the Redaction mutilation as from the introduction of Royal yajñās into the Vaitānic ritual scheme.

The Oñkāra. The Upanisad writers' special affection for it. A Chhāndogya Āraṇyaka object-lesson. The Vrātya land, a land of spells. Origin of the Om-spell, and what it stands for.

 $\S$  14. The  $Draupad\bar{\imath}$  Saga. Krsna- $M\bar{a}dhava$  and  $Jar\bar{a}sandha$ : Their places in Indo-Aryan political History.

Draupadi's place in the Mahābhārata story, a justification for designating it "the Draupadī Saga".

Kuru and Pānchāla not original Vedic-Aryan viscentres. Interpretation of the Videgha Māthava legend: Vedic Aryans neither reclaimed nor conquered the Middle Country, but scattered colonies of them came and settled amongst Vrātyas by whom it was populated.

Gaupālayana-Gandharvāyaṇa Vrātyastomas in Kuru and Panchāla. Brāhmans taking lessons in the Upaniṣads from the Rājanyabandhus of Kuru, Pānchāla and Kāsī, con-

#### \*xiv INDO-ARYAN LITERATURE AND CULTURE

temporaneously almost with the conferences on Upanişad learning held in the Court of Janaka at which Yājňavalkya, reputed collector of the Vājasaneyī Yajur texts, wins distinction. (Avid pursuit by Brāhmans of Upaniṣadic learning and its wide dissemination amongst them, a most active phase of the Redaction-Renascence).

Saga opens at a later age upon this venue, when the Vṛṣṇi-Yādava Aryan clan-confederacy led by Kṛṣṇa is found at death-grips with the territorial annexationistic Imperialism of Jarāsandha, King of Magadha and suzerain Emperor of the East and the Middle East. Immediate and ultimate political aims of the opposing leaders.

Kuru-Pāñchāla not at this date completely Brāhmanised, though the Mahābhārata composed long afterwards assumes it was. Consequent only partially completed Brāhmanisation of the materials of the Saga as handed down by oral tradition. Resulting "incongruities".

Death of the reigning Kuru King without issue. Royal legitimist motive for procuring issue by niyoga. Other motives besides and instrument chosen therefor, as recited in the Epic, demonstrably fabricated (Vyāsa, Vaśiṣṭha, Viśvāmitra and Paraśurāma of the Purāṇas cannot be historical personages). Niyoga not an Aryan practice, but casually found in Vrātya countries, and proved to have been a custom of the Royal House of Kuru. (Value to be attached to the Smṛti lists of marriages and sonships).

The Kṣelraja and Kānīna procreation of Pānḍu's sons and of Kaṛṇa nevertheless demonstrably fabrications. Probable origin of the Kuru-Pāṇḍava quarrel. Part possibly played by Kṛṣṇa in it.

Flight of the Pāṇḍavas to Pāṇchāla. Massive Brāhmaṇic, fabrications: Droṇa, Aśvatthāmā, Dhṛṣṭa-dyumna, the yājñic origin of Dhṛṣṭadyumna, the yājñic origin of Draupadi, and her svayamvara.

The five-husband-marriage of Draupadī to the five Pāṇḍavas, original saga-stuff. The marriage presumably a privately negotiated political marriage, very probably arranged by Kṛṣṇa's exertions who by that means sought to align the Kurus and Pāńchālas on the side of the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas against Jarāsandha.

Bhīma's love-episode with Hidimbā. The Hidimba-Baka-Rākṣasa myth, probably no part of original saga.

Second Pāṇḍava political marriage contrived by Kṛṣṇa, the Arjun-Sūbhadrā runaway match. Basic historicity of most of what is related of Kṛṣṇa, his kith and of his people, barring palpable exaggerations and fabrications.

Kuru-Pāṇḍava truce. The Pāṇḍavas at Indraprastha.

Yudhiṣṭhira's natural hankering for a Rājasūya. Kṛṣṇa's advice to put Jarāsandha out of the way. (Transformation of the nitya consecration ceremony for Kings of the Atharva Veda, into a naimittika celebration of the attainment of suzerainty by a Rāja-Chakravartin of Paurāṇic times, traced).

Jarāsandha, a worthy prince but a determined Imperialist, misunderstood even by Kṛṣṇa. Foundations of the historic Maurya Empire of Magadha probably laid by him. His chivalrous end removes the only equal adversary of Kṛṣṇa from the field.

The Rājasūya fiasco. Yudhisthira inveigled and entrapped. The Great Dice-game Episode, genuine saga in the main.

Draupadī in the Assembly Hall of the Kurus. Her demand of "the law". How her overpowering personality reacts, first, on prājňa-sammata Vikarņa, then on Dhṛtarāṣṭra and finally on foul-tongued, evil-souled Karṇa. The miracle of Draupadī's moral victory.

The Pandavas' ajñātavāsa in the Court of Virāta. The blood-drinking oath of Bhīma and the venī-saṃhāra oath of Draupadī, whether parts of the original saga.

Depletion of Indo-Aryan chivalry on the field of Kurukṣetra followed by the self-exterminating internecine feud amongst the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas.

All-round disillusionment, and tragic end of Kṛṣṇa's intensely active life.

Kṛṣṇa's ultimate political aim (the spreading and deep-rooting of Varṇa-āŝrama-dharma) realised through his deification not long after his death. His dream of a single empire ruled by dharma paradoxically realised by a successor of Jarāsandha of the Buddhistic faith. Where Jarāsandha saw further than Kṛṣṇa,

The Abhimanyu war-episode, genuine saga.

The Geeta.

Barring Vaisnavite and other palpable exaggerations, Kṛṣṇa and everything appertaining to him as related in the Mahābhārata belonged to both history and saga.

Double-star world of the Mahābhārata. Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava the more forceful luminary, a third at least equally forceful, Jarāsandha, having been removed from the field before Kṛṣṇā-Draupadī found herself in it. 170-215

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### INDO-ARYAN LITERATURE AND CULTURE: AN ENQUIRY INTO ORIGINS

#### Section I.

#### Introductory

The Indo-Aryan has left an astonishing quantity of written records which reflect in various ways and with varying degrees of fidelity and fulness the civilization and culture which were his, at different places and in different periods of time, during that historically long age of which the earliest event was the settlement of the Vedic Aryans on the banks of the Indus river, and which goes down at the other terminus to the period of composition of the earliest extant Puranas. Excepting some insignificant portions of this last-named literature which purport to chronicle some relatively very recent events having no bearing at all on the question of origins, no part of this record pretends or professes to be written history in the proper sense of the Matter possessing historical significance expression. abounds in this record. But all this wealth of written material must remain unutilised and unexploited, for the purpose of writing scientific history at least, so long as it is not found possible to allocate them in their proper places in a reliable chronological and geographical frame-work, and so long, further, as the march of events which fell out during this long stretch of time (over an area, too, of continental dimensions) remains a matter of purely personal conjecture unrelated altogether to data of demonstrable historicity.

So far, the efforts of students of this literature have been virtually confined to providing this chronological and historical frame-work, a most necessary and important preliminary step; and the progress made has on the whole been satisfactory. But in the absence of knowledge or even a dependable working hypothesis, scientifically related to established factual data concerning the other dimension mentioned, namely, the progress of events, the assigning of different fragments of this literature to different dates and to different geographical areas has not only not helped in producing history, but has on the other hand given birth to surmises and fancies of the most questionable scientific value. These pseudo-histories would be found on analysis to be little more than vehicles of personal and racial prejudice. So far from helping, they have, by corrupting and clouding the points of view of younger generations of investigators, served even to retard the reconstruction of real scientific history.

The two basic prejudices out of which most of this pseudo-history appears to have grown are: firstly, the Aryan bias; and, secondly, the somewhat melodramatic assumption of the Brāhman as the villain of the piece, to whose ingrained selfishness and capacity for exploitation and intrigue must be attributed every departure on the part of a civilization Aryan in origin and Aryan in trend from the straight-forward Aryan course.

This facile pseudo-history becomes all the more dangerous and inimical to the growth of scientific history when it professes expressly to dissociate itself from these prejudices. It then takes the form of pushing the original Vedic Aryan apple-cart from the banks of the Indus up and down all over the chronological and geographical frame-work previously mentioned along loci marked out

in that frame-work; and it is nonetheless a mechanical picture because it assumes a somewhat biological form. According to it, the original living cellular unit, the Vedic Aryan vis (ay), drawing sustenance from the hospitable environments of India proliferates and spreads and shoots out colonies and sub-colonies in all directions, with modifications, no doubt, due to local accretions and local impacts, but maintaining through it all a certain Aryan virility until deterioration sets in owing to enervating climatic conditions which make it increasingly prone to fall in with the evil ways of the Non-Aryans amongst whom finally it gets anchored and rooted. In this picture, the Aryan bias appears in a highly sublimated form, and the Brāhman deus ex machina is altogether excluded.

I have never been able to persuade myself (in view of the extreme complexity of the material from literature that has to be put into it) that any Indo-Aryan history which seeks to trace the whole movement ultimately from a single vegetative source and to explain it all in terms of the evolution and involution of the same original stock of energy can really represent history as it happened.

The chronological and geographical frame-work has after all a conceptual existence only; and unless it is viewed as the arena upon which forces moving from different angles meet and mingle and fight to a finish, or (as more often happens) to a standstill, the issue of which is a concordat or compromise, it operates not to help but to retard the making of true history. The renovator of unwritten history, more often than not, has to be prepared to explain institutions and cultures by tracing them to the clash, conflict and commingling of many many forces, which alone can be supposed initially to be able to account for the extreme complexity which is seen to characterise them as a rule.

But who will say what these forces were? Where are the witnesses? Dead and gone with never a trace left of the strange things they heard about or the stirring events they saw happening before their eyes.

Emulating the example of workers similarly circumstanced in the allied field of geology, I have for some time past been engaged in the highly interesting occupation of collecting from this literature fossil data which may be expected to throw light as well upon the origins as upon the progress of events, and the directions the forces have taken which have produced the institutions under investigation. I am convinced that without resort to methods akin to those pursued by the palaeontologist, really scientific reconstruction of lost Indo-Aryan history is impossible.

Not much study of Indo-Aryan literature is needed to discover that what makes out Indo-Aryan civilization as peculiar and distinctive is Varna-āŝrama-dharma; and that the Vedic Aryan settlers in the Punjab knew nothing of it, so that the institution must have come into being later. This was brought home to me by simply reading the Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata Epics alone. From the same reading I was also conviced that the varna-āŝrama scheme of life, at the time the Epics were written, still stood in need of intensive propaganda to be inculcated amongst the masses; that the movement was still, so to speak, in the dynamic proselytizing stage and had not yet settled down into the rigid hide-bound exclusive institution which it came to be, and that too not until long afterwards.

<sup>1</sup> My reflections on the Varna-āsrama-dharma based on the reading of the Epics, with occasional forays into the other Purānas, and impressions, cursorily gathered, of the Upaniṣads and the Darṣana literature are recorded in an essay which appeared in one of the Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes. The essay is styled "The Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata: A Sociological Study". Vol. III, pp. 361-404.

I had already begun to suspect that the potentiality for producing this remarkable institution did not exist in the primitive Vedic Aryan vis of the Punjab, but that the institution drew its main materials and sustenance from quite another type of society located far east-ward. I casually hinted at what was passing in my mind in this connection at a University Extension Lecture delivered in Dacca and published in the Dacca University Magazine of 1927. But I did not feel justified in drawing or presenting definite conclusions until I had to my own satisfaction gone over all the available data that are to be found in the literature relevant to the enquiry. Starting from Muir's very useful and satisfactory pioneer collection of textual material I found myself compelled to extend my researches into the Puranas and the Upanisads, on the one hand, and to the Samhitas of the Vedas, their Brahmanas, and the Sutra literature, on the other, collecting fossils all the way as I went. But it was not until I had succeeded in recovering what I believe to be the key to the Vrātyastoma ritual ceremonies (as depicted in the Panchavimsa Brahmana of the Sama Veda, and in the Śrauta-Sūtras) from the Vrātya Book (Book XV) of the Atharva Veda, and had found the key also to that Book and to the Atharva Veda as a whole (from the innumerable points of communication and contact, which the world of the Atharva Veda appeared to present with the world of the Epics and Puranas) that I felt justified in attempting to co-ordinate my materials and my conclusions in a presentable form. And this is what I am proposing to do in the following pages.

I shall begin my quasi-palaeontological examination of materials with the  $Vr\bar{a}tyastomas$ .

#### Section TT.

#### The Vratyastomas.

There were clearly more than one stoma bearing the general designation of Vrātyastoma. Different stoma rituals going by that same name were available for use in apparently generically distinct situations. There were four of them, as clearly appears from the Panchavimśa Brāhmaṇa.

I. The one intended for taking into the Vedic Aryan communion peoples who by birth and lineage were outside it; PB XVII. I to 17.2 It was a "conversion" ceremony. For though the Brāhmana expressly states the object of the stoma to be the "attainment of prosperity," Latyayana, the Sutra writer, who confines his treatment of the subject exclusively to this one form, describes the result as: बात्यस्तीमैरिष्ट्रा त्रैविद्यवृत्तिं समातिष्टेयुः ; that is, the ceremony transformed the subjects into dvijas, not into dvijas of this or that caste. (Lātyā. VIII.6.29). The stoma, it thus follows, is a relic from times when caste as such had not developed within the Vedic Aryan community. It is reminiscent of times when not only was there no exclusionary obsession such as marked the fully developed caste-consciousness of later ages, but when the Vedic Aryan tribes were actually anxious to swell their ranks anyhow, by the absorption even of gentry whose habits were notoriously such that they would not admit of bare mention even without abhorrence, PB XVII. 9. I can discover no grounds whatever for Bloomfield's assumption that the rite made it possible "for an unholy half-savage community to become Brāhmans".

<sup>2</sup> I had Dr. Caland's recently published Translation of the Pan havings Brahmana (1981) before me all the time I was engaged in preparing this work.

When this conversion ceremony came to be recorded in the Panchavimsa Brāhmaṇa, caste had fully matured and yajñic practices had proliferated into unmeaning ritualism of considerable complexity. The Brāhmaṇ priesthood had already taken control of from the largest to the smallest activities and interests of the people belonging to the community. The question arises, to what extent do the ritualistic practices recorded reproduce those of the precaste Aryans?

The stoma, in the shape it assumes in the Panchavimsa Brāhmana, bears marks of sophistication in many directions due to theological reasoning of the usual kind. But I find it hard to infer even from PB XVII.1.17 that Brahman priests officiated as rtvijas. There is a similar provision for giving daksinās in another ceremony of a similar standing, namely, the Syena-Yajña of the Vrātīnas described in the Sadvimsa Brāhmana, III. 8 (iv. 2). 23. But it seems quite clear from Latyayana's treatment of the matter that the Brahmans did not officiate; for not only are the rtvijas to be all selected from the anūchāna (enlightened, learned) sons of the Vrātīnas, the kine to be given as dakṣiṇā may be कागाः खोराः खञ्जाः कुञ्जाः कुटाः भग्नश्रङ्गाः वगुडाः! Lāṭyā. Ś. S. VIII. 5.16. The "equipments" of the Vrātīna rtvig bear a close family resemblance to the "equipments" of the Vrātya grihapati: the turban, the goad, the vehicle (vipatha) etc. (PB XVII. 14), and of those of the other Vrātyas of his following; (PB XVII. 15). All these equipments which Lātyāyana designates as the बात्यधनाः (VIII.6. 28) are to be given away after the conclusion of the ceremony, so that the sins of heresy of the converted Vrātya may pass with the castoff equipments to the receivers thereof. Taking of daksinās for performing expiatory ceremonies on behalf of yaimans without doubt originally signified a similar transfer of sin to the receivers of the daksinās. The Brāhmans had indeed

to persuade themselves that they were themselves gods and that the daksinas were sacrifices offered to them as gods before they felt safe from the effects of this kind of sintransfer. But it was one thing to take over sins with which one is familiar and quite another to take over strange and unknown sins. This sqeamishness in regard to the sins of heretics certainly lingered in the case of the Syena-Yajña, and would naturally do so also in the case of this Vrātyastoma. The texts of the PB XVII however do not appear to be decisive as to be whether it did or not. But the description of the conversion stoma as given in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, presently to be considered, is decisive that originally the Brahmans gave this ceremony the widest berth and left the whole proceeding to be ordered by the intending converts themselves in whatever way the spirit moved them.

At the time the stoma got recorded in the PB, it is possible that the ceremony for practical purposes had not become obsolete; for if it had, the motive for propping it up by the mythology of the first text would have been wanting. This text professes to state how the ceremony originated amongst the gods. The mythology was probably called for to give canonical sanction to a practice already becoming suspect. By the time, however, that the Sūtra writers came to write on it, this stoma had undoubtedly ceased to be a living practice, for from the notes left by Lātyāyana, it is perfectly clear that these doctors between them could not make out what exactly were the things which the articles mentioned as the equipments of the Vrātyas actually stood for. (Lātyā. VIII. 6).

II. The second *Vrātyastoma* was meant for re-initiating those who "being base and censured lead a Vrātya life." The language signifies "excommunication" (not "outcasting"), though caste had already firmly established

itself when the Panchavimsa Brāhmaṇa was making a digest of these and other ritual practices, thus indicating that this ceremony too had come into existence in pre-caste days. It is very likely indeed that the Conversion stoma was an adaptation of this second ceremony modified to suit. This ritual must have been performed by Brāhmaṇa rtvijas: that indeed seems to be taken for granted in the Brāhmaṇa and in the Sūtra books.

- III. The third  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$  was admissible for initiating young persons born of Aryan lineage who had for some reason or other missed their initiation at the right time.
- IV. The fourth  $Vr\bar{a}tyastema$  was prescribed for people similar to the subjects of the third stema but who in addition had continued in the unregenerate state till beyond their age of procreation.

The subjects of the third and fourth ceremonies could hardly have been regarded with the aversion in which the excommunicate must have been held. Existing would just hit off the object to be subserved by performing these ceremonies. The performance of the other two forms would no doubt in the long run achieve for their subjects the same very desirable end, but the immediate purpose of these two stomas was obviously secular, and this text of the Pańchavimśa Brāhmaṇa did not probably miss the mark altogether when it described the object of the Conversion stoma in terms of "prosperity" in general, for the Vedic svarga is a heaven of prosperity unalloyed by evil. It is thus easy to understand why in later times, when the "conversion" and "regeneration" motives became weak and finally disappeared, the Sūtra writers

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> I state later my reasons for supposing that the two first stomas had fallen into desuetude when the Sütra writers came to write upon the Vrātyastomas. Their writings consequently show not merely lack of understanding of the differences between one stoma and another, A2.

ceased from assigning for the performance of the  $Vr\bar{a}tyastomas$  any other reason than the all-sufficient one, that is, the attainment of heaven.

It is noteworthy however, that even in a fairly early Sūtra work, the Apastamba Śrauta Sūtra (XX.5), the distinctions previously stressed between the Fratyastomas and their treatment as a class apart amongst the ritual practices have been showing signs of being slurred over. The Vrātyastomas occur in the same Kandikā lumped up in close juxtaposition with the three वाचः स्तोमाः leading in the van and the चादित्यानाम् प्रयति and the चामिम् (whereby स्वर्गकामो भ्रातृन्यमभिभवति विनुत्या भ्रातृन्यम् विनुदते) following in the rear. The only inference I feel justified in drawing from all this is that the Vrātyas calling for conversion having by this time disappeared from the picture, and numerous caste-groups (which by now have come to be established as such in a way to be hereafter described) offering ready asylum (without Brāhmanic interposition) to waifs and strays from the higher castes. the Vrātyastoma as a whole had ceased to be of practical importance, and continued to be dealt with by the Sutra writers as a literary duty rather than as a social necessity.

The Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra is earlier than the Āpastamba and is recognised as one of the earliest Sūtra works. The fact that this work is written more in the style of a Brāhmaṇa than other works belonging to the same class is cogent evidence of its earlier composition.

but they mix them up together also in other very strange ways. Thus the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra (XXII, 1. 4-28) whilst stating the purposes of the several stomas quite accurately, the first stoma being specifically stated to be for बार्यगान, proceeds to require a grhapati for all the four classes of cases. The effect generally for all the cases is said to be वार्यस्तामिरिध्या बार्यभावाद्विरमेयुः; व्यवहाय्या भवन्ति।

In his treatment of the Conversion stoma (XVIII. 24), Baudhāyana, to my mind, lets the cat altogether out of the bag: no yājñic rituals are called for; no dakṣiṇā; no Brāhmaṇ rtvijas. The Vrātya sthapati (the grhapati of the PB) and his followers between them are left to carry the show through in their own way. To start with, there is no गाईपत्यामि, for who will offer his sacred fire to be used for Vrātyas and thereby incur who knows what unknown sins? Therefore the grhapati's रथोपस्थ has perforce to serve for the गाईपत्य. And every part of the rest of the business is conceived and ordered in the same spirit. But the performers are judiciously warned not to make a public exhibition of the farcical expedient, परोच्च मुपेट्य प्रत्यक्त नोपेयुः, they are advised.

They, for all the Brāhmans cared, might use there own बात्यवाद, it would be taken to have the same effect as the right दीचितवाद; and whatever other hocus pocus they went through, as the spirit moved them, was to be similarly madebelieve as the one or the other of the essential links in the prescribed chain of ceremonies which were conceived to be essential for binding them for all time to the Aryan communion as though they were full-blooded members thereof!

I have previously indicated that the Conversion  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$  of the Pańchavimśa Brāhmaṇa might very probably have been by origin an adaptation of the  $Vr\bar{a}yastoma$  for the excommunicate. It looks as though, as originally conceived, it need not have been even that. Any colourable performance, provided the intention was there, served the purpose just as well. As I shall presently show, this was what might have been expected.

## Section III.

The Conversion Vrātyastoma: A Political not a Religious Ritual admissible for Aryans and Non-Aryans alike. The Largest Accession to Aryanism, from the Non-Aryan East.

There is an overwhelming preponderance of learned opinion that the Vratya who sought admission and was admitted must in any case have been of Aryan extraction. The material wherein this sine qua non may be supposed to be lurking is contained in two sentences of the PB XVII. 1. 9: अदीन्निता दीन्नितवाचं वदन्ति; अदुरुक्तवाक्यं दुरुक्तमाहः। In the copy of the Commentary on the Latyayana Srauta Sūtra in the Dacca University Library4, I find the first quoted as दीनिता दीनितवाचं वदन्ति implying (if it be no misquotation, I am not sure it is) ability to pick up the Aryan speech after conversion, which would not however carry with it ability to pronounce correctly, and this is just what is implied in the other sentence. This reading may be the right reading or not, but it does certainly possess the merit of harmonising perfectly with the Baudhayana picture.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;4 The Srauta Sūtra of Lētyāyana with the Commentary of Agnisvami edited by Ānanda Chandra Vendāntavāgiša. The word preceding those quoted is चरन्तः which is obviously wrong. It must be either चरन्तः Besides the Baudhāyana text referred to, my surmise that the word in question is दीचिताः and not अदीचिताः receives support also from the passage from the Vrātyastoma texts in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaņa (II. 222), which assigns, to the unconverted, speech which is

The texts so far considered taken all together make it plain in any case that a time there was when the Aryan was eagerly anxious to absorb outsiders into his community without searching inquiry into their credentials in the matter of race, descent or respectability even.

The description found encrusted in the Panchavimsa Brahmana texts marks the people for whom the stoma was originally framed as rather questionable gentry, gipsy-like vagrants or other similar nondescript banditti, and very far from being blue-blooded Varangians.

But assume for argument's sake that the primitive Vedic Aryan vis was as squeamish and discriminating in the matter of admitting outsiders into their free-masonry as these writers (and they include Weber and Bloomfield!) suppose them to have been. What conceiveably was in that case the Vedic Aryan aristocrat's test for determining the Aryancy or the contrary of the suppliant for admission into the vis? Not the Rislevan authropometric test in any event (it is so thoroughly discredited already)! It was not language I am convinced, the evidence supplied by the Baudhyāyana Sūtras being conclusive on the point. Complexion? Perhaps, but for just so long as the settlers had only Dasyu "black-fellows" to contend against to protect their homes and cattle. But soon the settlements are so many that they fall out and fight amongst themselves, with these very Dasyus often for allies. The fact is, there is little reason for assuming that the early Aryans were very presentable gentry themselves; or that at this time they were or could afford to be as aristocratically minded or snobbish as some of them later came to be. Living in the midst of enemies, these small settlements had frequent need for recruits into their ranks ; and they had to be smart proselytisers if the vagrants and

bandits (who were valued for their muscles and not for their manners and deportment) were not to be snapped up by rival settlements with just the same need for man-power. Nothing, not even complexion, stood in the way when the need proved imperious. How, otherwise, could the black (krsna, śyāma) complexion come eventually to be regarded in Paurānic times as an attraction in men and women alike?

The admission of outsiders into the Aryan communion was never aught but a stern political necessity which disregarded religious and social punctilios and susceptibilities as irrelevancies.

At that time the Brāhmaṇas, as I have already stated, were not the first of castes, but just the priestly leaders of settlements which lay hemmed in on all sides by enemies; witch-doctors in a sense, but for all that realists who did not need to be taught that self-preservation was the highest of virtues and the first of religious duties. Any ceremony, a colourable make-believe even, served the turn provided only that it signified a solemn abjuration of the old ties for those assumed and a substantial addition to the man-power of the community which was adopting these new recruits as its members.

This scholarly obsession that the Aryan Brāhmaṇs even in those days, were always sniffing at foreigners, in order to guard the sacred settlements from being polluted by contact with the Non-Aryan, is responsible for the extraordinary failure to follow up the clues, furnished in abundance by the Vedic and the Paurāṇic literature in references which invariably associate the Vrātya with the East, right into the heart and centre of Indo-Aryan pre-history.

Who, they seem to imply, could possibly even imagine that the Aryan influx, arriving whether in thin streams or in swelling currents, had ever moved otherwise than from the West eastward?

And yet, what are you to make of the almost indissoluble association of the Vrātya with that eastern mountebank, the Māgadha, in the Atharva Veda and in the Srauta Sūtras? His travelling car, upon the exact nature of which the Sūtra doctors can scarcely agree, is affirmed by one of the latest of them to be neither more nor less than a **news** (Lātyāyana VIII. 6. 9) a vehicle of eastern make (Lātyānana seems to have had local knowledge of the East). This recurring freakish allusion to Eastern people, Eastern lands and Eastern things, scholars do their best to palliate or excuse, and having done so, turn again resolutely towards the West for signs and portents which will finally, they hope, solve to their complete satisfaction and make intelligible the enigma of the Vrātya and of the Eka-Vrātya of the Vrātya Book (XV) of the Atharva Veda.

And behold! it is not the jabbering (श्रात्कृष्ट, see the Purusamedha text, VS XXX) court-parasite of a Māgadha only who is found inseparably and insufferably associated with the Vrātya. Along with him must also come sailing in, in all her venal attractions, the mincing Pumschalī (hetaera, harlot)! The Aryan might be a wine-bibber and a gourmand; but in matters of sexual propriety, is he not and has he not ever been (with unfortunate exceptions, of course) an example to other folk? But this Vrātya (perforce an Aryan), even when he is exalted as a brahmavid and glorified to the point of deification as the Eka-Vrātya, why cannot he be mentioned, and by a Vedic seer and hymnologist too, otherwise than as being pursued and shadowed by the

spectres of these creatures? Did scholars ever have to set themselves to solving a more exasperating riddle?

The fact simply is that this Vrātya is Eastern and of the East; and a Non-Aryan, if "Aryan" must, as these scholars suppose, mean only the Vedic Aryan hailing from the West! And one must prepare oneself for and accustom himself to the notion that the Vedic world's largest and most noteworthy accession of manpower came from the East, the Anupadesa, and in such numbers and volume besides that it is a matter indeed for extreme thankfulness and surprise that that world was not completely overwhelmed and submerged by this rolling inundation, leaving behind it no track or trace whatever or a footmark even to remind one of the existence of one of the most remarkable of freak communities thrown up by the accidents of history, I mean, the Vedic Aryans of the Indus valley. And it speaks volumes also for the virility and intense moral vigour of the strongest and the most determinative element in the materially weaker Vedic stream (Brāhmanism) that, so far from allowing its forces to be dissipated and destroyed, it took on the other hand the prevailing part in a process which in the fulness of time led to the crystallization of the combined Arvan and Non-Arvan material in that most remarkable and distinctive of cultural phenomena, the Indo-Aryan Varna-āsrama-dharma.

Brāhmanism bent, but never broke before the might of the Vrātya, the Eka-Vrātya of the Atharva Veda. But bend it had to, and that mainly in the political sense.

## Section IV

Contrasting Political and Social Conditions of the Vedic Aryan Settlements vis-a-vis the Vrātya Empire of the East. Light from the Purānas.

To understand the circumstances which made it necessary for the proud Brahman spirit to submit to the political domination of the Eastern Eka-Vrātya, it will be necessary to visualise with some particularity the conditions which prevailed in the Aryan political and social units of the West. They were small, scattered and more or less detached communities of a rather simple social organization. The RgVeda mentions quite a number of trades and professions, but these were neither so numerous nor so complex as to fill to overflowing even such a simple receptacle of civilization and culture as a typical Indian village commuity in the condition in which if might be conceived to have existed before the British European impact. In this little world of a very restricted social horizon, the profession (not a caste yet) which exercised the dominating influence was the Brahman's. They, the Brāhmans, were more than witch-doctors, for they directed the education of the youth of the vis (who were all expected for a suitable number of years to live as brahmacharin pupils in the families of Brahman preceptors) and enforced severe moral discipline on themselves and on the members

<sup>5</sup> The number of years and the kind of training appear to have varied according to the profession the pupil was expected to follow.

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of the other professions, including the profession which kept the peace within the community and guarded it from external attack; and they made the community as a whole svarga-kāma, a characteristic which can be found in only one other historic priestly order, namely, the Christian Catholic Church of Medieval Europe<sup>6</sup>. There is conclusive evidence in Indo-Aryan literature that this domination and discipline were intensely resented, and when submitted to, were borne with extremely bad grace by the equally intensely (politically) self-conscious Kṣatriya profession, a phenomenon which also finds an apt analogue in European Medieval history in the opposition to the Church's domination by Kings and Princes.

6. The above is by no means an imaginary picture. I made a point, before I drew up this sketch, of preparing a digest of the whole body of ritualistic practices described in the Panchavimsa Brahmana and the specific objects which they are stated to subserve. The world which emerged into view from this analytical treatment of the very best and completest data available was a world of small house-holders, cultivators, shepherds, farmers, petty chieftains and priests, a world of which the whole material outlook was of an extraordinarily limited character. Amongst the ritualistic practices described are some which, as will be seen, were imported from the spacious world of the East (the Rajasuya, Asyamedha and other Royal ceremonies). But the compiler of this Brahmana is plainly unable to expand his own personal outlook beyond the limited horizon of his usual themes which are physical health and strength; food and progeny; cattle, horses and mules; and so on, repeated time and again with wearisome iteration. This "chronicle of small beer" is varied by a more occasionally expressed desire for "firm support", "priestly lustre", "wealth" and "prosperity", the widest (and also the vaguest) concept of well-being limned being svarga, which, of course, is the same limited world over again with but its trials, troubles and contrarieties completely smoothed down.

The Panchavima is one of the earliest Brahmanas, as the Satapatha (barring the Gopatha) is the latest. The horizon of the latter is distinctly a wider one and of ampler contents.

These little Aryan settlements were not havens of peace, either internally or externally; and when they coalesced, as they sometimes did for political reasons, the strife within the community, between priestly school and priestly school, between them and the nobility, and between groups or individuals within the latter, accentuated. No better picture of the condition that prevailed can be imagined than is found depicted in the accounts of the Yādava Federation in the Mahābhārata and the Harivaṃśa. Uncomplicated at any rate by discords between the priesthood and the nobility, the Greek City States were embodiments of harmony and understanding compared with the wrangling and strife which were almost chronic in the Vedic Aryan settlements.

What a contrast to all this is presented by whatever records we possess of the Eastern States of Videha and Kosala. But the typical Eastern State would be not these but the Magadha of Jarāsandha.

Jarāsandha conquered the outlying areas, not to make vassals of their chiefs but to annex them, carrying the chieftains captive to his capital at Giribraja, the city of decorated chaityas and the flourishing abode of a contented consisting of all four varnas हष्ट्रपष्टजनोपेतं populace चात्रव्वरार्यसमाकुलम् । स्फीतोत्सवमनाध्यम · · ॥ Mahābhā. 21.13-14), the capital of the "land of the Magadhas", which by the favour of Manu (so observes Krsna) had been made incapable of suffering from droughts, अपरिहार्या मेघानां मागघा मनना कताः Idem, 21.10). The feud between the Yādava Confederacy and Jarasandha which is described with such life-like vividness in this Parva by Kṛṣṇa is reminiscent of a

<sup>7</sup> Fine historical material which, like another not very dissimilar source of historical data (the Rājataranginī of Kāśmīr), remains unexploited,

struggle which, over and above the internecine strife and wrangling which prevailed within the Aryan settlements must all the time have been going on between the two distinct types of polities and cultures of which these two were the representatives and protagonists.<sup>8</sup>

The internecine feud which, as I have stated, was chronic within the Aryan settlements between the two orders of the Aryan aristocracy (not yet hardened into castes, though no doubt they had already begun to look down upon each other and upon the rest of the general population, that is to say, the vis, not yet ear-marked as the Vaisyas) is finely reflected in the Pṛthu-Vainya legend, recounted with unwearied iteration in several of the Purāṇas, and, historically, one of the most significant to be found in this literature.

Vena, one of a line of chieftains (not a King consecrated as such) appointed to keep order amongst men (the Manu Samhitā styles him a Rājarsi), a Vedic Aryan chieftain evidently from all available marks and indications, quarrels with the Brāhmans, and apparently seeks to starve that overbearing order into submission by prohibiting his subjects from performing yajñas (there was no ban, mark, on the worship of the Lares and Penates round the grhya fire, nor on the even pursuit in the strict orthodox style of the normal round of the samskāras and ceremonies which punctuated and marked the even tenor of the Vedic Aryan house-holder's existence from before birth to death and beyond), and called upon them to disregard the Brāhmans and their Devas (meaning, no doubt, those for whom the yajñas proper of those days, the soma and other hieratic sacrifices, were held) and fall to worshipping and offering sacrifices to him Vena, citing therefor as an all-sufficient

For details, see Section XIV, infra.

justification the fact that he was the foremost in courage, enlightenment and self-discipline, and in probity and greatness of soul inferior to none, besides that physically speaking he was the most powerful individual in the community.9 The Brāhmans, enraged beyond endurance, kill the chieftain out of hand. But Vena was childless, and the Brahmans, who were not vindictive and did not desire that he, Vena, should starve for lack of oblations in the special purgatory which the gods had provided for the sonless, forthwith set about creating out of his royal body an heir by the application of the fire-stick! The issue somehow of this first experiment turns out to be a sort of changeling, the diminutive black-complexioned Nisada, who immediately is banished to the Vindhya Hills, there in course of time to become the parent stock of various mlechchha tribes of fisherfolk and others. But the second experiment is more than successful, for the outcome is Prthu, who later is to be the first of "Consecrated Kings" (the "Consecrated King", be it noted here, is by origin an institution belonging to the Non-Aryan East, as will be seen) and will make the Earth (hitherto uneven and untillable) plain and cultivable, divide it up into provinces and townships, build roads thereon for mercantile

of this Rājarṣi who must have been a very live individual to have created animosity in the hearts of the Brāhmaṇs which lasted through ages. That very recent hide-bound caste-Brāhmaṇ, the author of the Manu Saṃhitā, must needs bracket him with Nahuṣa, Sudasa, Sumukha and Nimi (all Vedic Aryan chieftains) amougst Rājanyas who met their end through lack of proper subserviency to the Brāhmaṇs (Manu VII. 41) In Ch. IX. 66, 67, where the practice of begetting sons on a wife by niyoga and the marriage of widows are reprobated as unatifit is gratuitously affirmed that these came into a world that knew them not, as did the equally reprobated Babel of castes (author) when that mighty but power-crazed Rājarṣi ruled the universe.

traffic (विश्वकपथ), introduce the arts of agriculture and cowkeeping, and make the earth fruitful in every other way, so that it is under his royal sway that the earth becomes auran in fact as well as in name. The consecration ceremony is supervised by no other than Prajapati himself (an Atharvanic god of Vrātya origin, by the way) assisted by the rsis. All living creatures willingly co-operate in the performance of this sattra. The tale of miracles is not complete yet. Out of the yaiñas issue two creatures. the Sūta and the Māgadha, who are immediately employed in singing the praises of the King and of the Royal House he has founded, and this they do in such style that they are forthwith appointed hereditary chroniclers and singers of Royal sagas, and the lands of Anupadesa (Anga, in some versions) and Magadha are assigned to them respectively for subsistence.

The Earth Pṛthu rules is प्रथिता प्रविभक्ता शोभिता शस्याकरवती स्फीता वातुर्व्यायसमाकीयां पुरपत्तनशालिनी वहन्धरा, Vāyu Purāṇa, 62. 4; Harivaṃśa 6. 46-47. It shows a remarkable family likeness to the country ruled by Jarāsandha. It exhibits a similar or even greater likeness, as will be seen later, to the Pṛthivī (Bhumi) ruled by the Eka-Vrātya of the Vrātya Book of the Atharva Veda. Each of these worlds demonstrably included Magadha.

Pṛthu, without any effort on his part, obtains homage from all classes and orders, including, as the Purāṇas take particular care to specify, the Brāhmaṇs, even the most exalted amongst them. For, as the Vāyu Purāṇa puts it, नमस्यश्चेव पूज्यश्च भूतप्रामेण सर्ज्याः। ब्राह्मण्डेच महाभागेः वेदवेदाङ्ग पारगेः॥ पृथुरेव नमस्कार्यः...।

In the Mahābhārata version (Sānti 59), where an attempt is plainly made to take Pṛthu down a peg or two, truth nevertheless leaks out where it is stated that he, Pṛthu, came to be called Kṣatriya because he had saved

the Brāhmaṇs from all possibilities of harm: त्राह्मणानां ज्ञतत्राणात् ततः ज्ञत्रियमुच्यते ।

All the trite Brahmanising bombast which is woven into this legendary narrative fails to disguise the fact that Prthu was not of the breed of the Vedic Aryan warlord. He was King by divine right, and allegiance was owed to him by every individual within his Peace, even if he should be the most highly placed amongst the Brāhmans, as though it was a part of the ordinances of nature. He did not merely guide the destinies of bodies of small house-holders; he was an Emperor of wide-flung lands and tracts, which certainly included Anga and Magadha and ran close up to the Vindhya range, and might for aught we know have included Kāśi, Kośala and Videha to the north of the river Ganges (so as to cover the entire Anupadesa). His subjects were a mixed lot held together, not as were the members of an Aryan vis by common custom, common sentiments and common gods, but by the might of an autocratic ruler. They included many autocthonous tribes lumped together under the common designation of Nisadas, and other people who, whatever they might have been ethnologically, were unknown in the Aryan visas, a conglomeration of many peoples and (let the fact be faced) castes, pursuing different occupations, worshipping different gods even, professing different customs and mores, a microcosm, each one of them, within the macrocosm of the Empire, an Empire of Vrātya people ruled by a Vrātya Emperor, presenting diametrical contrasts in every respect to the simpler and very much more unified and unitary composition of the Aryan visus, which became fractious only because of the rivalry for leadership between the two politically conscious classes, the Brahmans and Kşatriyas. The moral and material outlook of this Empire or its people

could have borne no relation whatever to the petty parochialities, we have noticed, of the Aryan settlements.

It is clear too from this legend that the Aryan Brāhmans had become thoroughly dissatisfied with the Vena kind of Ksatriya chieftains preferring thereto the rule of the Vrātya Eastern Emperor; and the legend not improbably disguises and covers up the traces of an act of organised disloyalty; the Eastern Emperor might well have been invited to undertake, and even actively aided therein, by rebellious Brāhmans in a campaign of conquest of their own native settlements. Let us assume, however, that all this story of the Brāhmans killing Vena is as much of a myth as the alleged procreation of a legitimate heir on the royal body by the wonder-working fire-stick. The legend establishes beyond doubt or cavil that the Brahmans concerned did pass from out of the stormy Peace of the chieftains of the Vena order into the Peace of the Vratya Emperor who is King by divine right, be the material means, by which this transference of allegiance was accomplished, what they might. And then the real miracle happened. In this new environment, the like of which the Aryan Brāhmans had never experienced or dreamed of experiencing in their native settlements, the Emperor easily and automatically wins from the Brahmans the homage and worship, for demanding which Vena (according to the legend) had to pay with his life. No mere Kşatriya war-lord of the vis could ever dream of receiving the abject worship that is implied in the following lines:

तस्य संस्तिमिता द्वापः समुद्रमियास्यतः । पर्व्वताश्च ददुर्मागं ध्वजभङ्गश्च नाभवत् ॥ तं वनस्पतयः येला देवास्त्रमहोरगाः । सप्तर्पयः प्रत्यजना गन्धर्व्वाप्सरसोऽपि च ॥ पितरश्च स्रवासीनमभिगम्येदमव् वन् । सम्राङ्सि चन्नियोऽसि राजा गोसा पितासि नः ॥

## देद्यास्मभ्यं महाराज प्रसुः सन्नीप्सितान् वरान्। यैर्वयं शाश्वती स्तृप्तीर्व्वर्त्तं यिष्यामहे स्वम् ॥

Mahābhā. Drona 66. 9-12.

And Prthu Vainya is not a Pauranic figure only. Sūkta 148 of the Xth Mandala of the RgVeda attributes its authorship to Prthi Vainya, and a Prthi Vainya is spoken of in RV VIII. 9. 10 as performing yajñas to the Aśvins in the right orthodox style. But all these are plainly not conclusive for showing that Prthi Vainya was not an Emperor of the East who was induced to accept for himself and his people the Aryan communion by an act of proselytization. The Santi Parva version of the Prthu Vainya legend in the Mahābhārata makes Prthu swear to the Brāhmans that he would at all cost maintain the sacred inviolability of the Brāhmans. The same version further says that Prthu got the title of Kşatriya because of his having placed the Brahmans above and beyond all apprehensions of injury. That is obviously as far as the Brāhman composer (or reviser) of this legend could ever be expected to go.

To have stated baldly that the Brāhmans swore eternal allegiance to the Vrātya Emperor because he undertook to defend them and their faith, in token whereof he graciously agreed for himself and for his people to enter the Aryan communion—the whole arrangement smacking thus of a kind of concordat between the Emperor and those who exercised dominating influence in the Vedic Aryan settlements, with a view really and ultimately to keep down the fractious Kṣatriya element in these settlements—would not only have been to ride roughshod over all notions of poetic proprieties, it would, from the point of view of the author of the legend, have given A4.

the whole Brāhman show away; for instead of putting the Brāhman forward as King-makers and dictators, they would have been exhibited in the ignoble role of suppliants for protection before a foreign power and the betrayers of their own order of governors and rulers. This, as nearly as it is permissible to speak of such matters with assurance, is presumably what happened.

And there are positive links also between the Prthu Vainya of the Puranas and the Prthi Vainya of the Samhitās and Brāhmaņas. In Atharva Veda VIII. 10. 24, Pṛthi Vainya is stated to have milked Virāj (Rule? Dominion ? Earth ?) and thereby obtained for men cultivation (kṛṣi) and grains, the two essentials of their sustenance. In the Purana version the two things are separated: Prthu invents the art of agriculture, and later by a dramatic exhibition of his might as a warrior and autocratic ruler he cows poor Prthivi into abject submission and milks her of all her wealth. The Puranas have this trick of taking up abstract notions from the Srutis and dressing them up into concrete events. The other link is found in several of the Brāhmaņas, of which mention need be made only of the Satapatha (V. 3. 5. 4) where, as in the Puranas, Prthi is spoken of as the first of "Consecrated Kings."10

What progress I have already made in narrowing down the distance between the Prthu of the Purāṇas and the the Eka-Vrātya of Book XV of the Atharva Veda will appear when I shall have presented an equally complete picture of the latter drawn from material gathered from the Atharva Veda. This is the topic which I should take in hand immediately. But example is catching, and the Veṇa

The Harivaméa (II. 24) pointedly says : राजसूयाभिविक्तानामाद्यं स वसुधाधिपः ।

legend has, I fear, gone into my head; and I cannot resist the temptation of indulging in a little historical romance (Purana) on my own account. The romance which will form the subject of the next Section will differ from most other romances which have been written in being a romance, in the substantial fidelity of which to facts the author has the fullest faith. That faith is founded upon the care which he has taken to make it not only acceptable as a coherent story agreeing with all the ordinary probabilities, but also to see that each part of it and the story taken as a whole are made strictly accordant in every particular with all the data available which have any bearing upon the Eka-Vrātva and his Empire. Whether I shall be justified in claiming this as an extreme instance of the exercise of the kind of scientific imagination, such as one meets with every day in all modern treatments of questions belonging to the very similarly circumstanced sciences of palaeontology and cosmogony, I shall not pause here to consider or determine. All I would say now is that the romance which will form the subject of the next Section is a very necessary step in the proper presentation of my thesis upon the Vrātya Book of the Atharva Veda.

## Section V

A Chapter (mainly) of Historical Romance: (i) Aryan Brāhmaṇs in the Eka-Vrātya's Court. (ii) The Great Vrātyastoma Ekāha-Sattra. (iii) The Composition of the Vrātya Book.

Disputes and differences which break out with such violence in the realm of Vena seethe and simmer in nearly all the Vedic Aryan visas and vis-confederacies where they do not actually take more manifest forms. Although, in a general way, the Brahmans succeed in making their wishes prevail within these settlements, neither branch of the official aristocracy appears to have such a clear title of superiority over the other that the party who loses ground in any contest, be it the Brahman or the Kşatriya, is willing to submit to the situation without demur and without inwardly harbouring the desire to obtain the upper hand at the next turn. When the differences become very acute, as the physical power rests with the Keatriyas, many Brahmans are compelled to leave their native settlements and seek refuge in foreign lands11. Travellers from foreign countries have been telling stories of the state and magnificence of the Court of the Emperor of the Great Vrātya country of Anupadeśa and Magadha.

<sup>11</sup> I have to dismiss the statements recorded in the extant completely Brāhmaņised Purāṇas, that the Brāhmaṇs unaided repeatedly rid the earth of the recalcitrant Kṣatiryas by force of arms, as propaganda run mad. The Paraśurāma of the Purāṇas, in particular, with whom these stories are mostly associated, is even more impossible than the stories themselves.

Some very learned Brāhmans, unable any longer to put up with the arrogance and petty persecutions of their own chieftains, finally abjure the Peace of these little-minded tyrants, and shaking the dust of Aryan-land off their feet seek asylum in the Great Vrātya's Court.

It is a strange country altogether, this Kingdom of the Great Vrātya. Everybody defers to him and implicitly obeys his orders. In issuing his orders and ordinances, he does not consult the local Brahmans, and no blame to him for this, for, truth to tell, the Brahmans of the land are very The best of them who live in the Court poor specimens. of the King are chiefly employed in composing and recounting on state and other occasions the mighty deeds of the members of the Royal house and of the nobility; and they officiate also as priests in the grhya ceremonies of their noble employers, which are very different indeed from those practised in the Aryan house-holds. The King and the nobles, however, are highly intelligent men and do not appear to think much of these ceremonies, which in truth are marked by a multitude of superstitious beliefs and practices whereof incantation and witchcraft form the prevailing features. These saga-singing and spellmongering Brāhmans also officiate at the religious ceremonies of the common people who are not at all like the people of the Aryan visas. Here each profession appears to form a vis by itself with its special beliefs and practices; and even the gods worshipped by one professional group appear to be different from those worshipped by the others. But they all believe in ghosts, witches, sorcerors and demons of all descriptions, and the ministration of the priests (who go by the names of Sūtas and Māgadhas, according to the parts of the country of which they are the natives) consists chiefly in the pronouncing of set spells and charms and the practising of exorcisms and the ordaining of elaborate

expiatory rites for sins real as well as imagined. The people, grouped as they mostly are according to the pursuits they follow for a living, do not intermarry or interdine, one group with another, each group forming a separate  $j\bar{a}ti$ . The Sūtas and Māgadhas too form separate  $j\bar{a}tis$ , and the Rājanyas also are a  $j\bar{a}ti$  by themselves.<sup>12</sup>

And the strangest thing of all is that these people know nothing of yajñus and sattras. The only public ceremonies which interest them are certain great Royal functions, at which all the people are expected to join in one way or another, and these are more like public festivities than sattras or yajñus in the Aryan sense, which are really invocations addressed to the possessors of supernatural powers, the Aryan gods themselves.

The Rājanyas, though they do not perform yajñas and sattras, hold very advanced religious views. They believe in certain Great Gods who more resemble the Varuṇa of the Aryan Pantheon than Indra, Soma, or Agni. Also, they have very fine ideas concerning the origin of the universe, of life and mind, and the King and the nobles often hold interminable discussions on cosmogonic and theosophic subjects, which however they on no account impart to the common people, treating it all as a science esoteric in their own order. These Rājanyas appear to have been foreigners originally, who had come and conquered this country of hills, plains and river valleys, rich in cultivation and the other fruits and products of the

<sup>12</sup> The Vrātya Rājanyas' attitude was not unlike the attitude of the Roman officials towards the popular religious superstitions of their respective countries. They tolerated and even participated in them from considerations of political expediency. For ordering their own inner lives, the Roman officials as a rule either practised the Stoic philosophy or followed esoteric cults imported from the East.

arts and industries, and had imposed themselves as rulers over a population consisting of very diverse kinds of people. The generality of the people of this country appears to be very docile, with no spirit in them, and this is quite intelligible, seeing that they live in constant fear of, and are in consequence perpetually engaged in preparations for warding off, imaginary dangers from witches, sorcerors, demons and ghosts and the shadows of their own sins even before they have been committed, by necromancies of every description.

The strangers from Aryan-land, being discovered to be political exiles, easily gain audience of the King who is found to be greatly interested in whatever may be happening in the Aryan settlements. The Brāhmaṇs favourably impress him by their intelligence and culture. The conversation soon turns upon the circumstances which made them abjure the land of the their birth. The Great Vrātya explains to the Brāhmaṇs how impossible it is for communities to make any progress politically or economically if

nentioned is that possibly these Rājanyas represented an earlier wave of immigration on the part of a people who might or might not have had remote Aryan affinities. That they had little part or share in Vedic Aryan customs and mores seems pretty clear. It is a mistake very widely entertained that India has received immigrants through the Khyber and Bolan passes only. The indigenous people of China had for centuries been ruled by a race of immigrants who had dispersed from perhaps the same centre as did the Aryans, though probably not at the same time. The Vrātya Rājanyas might very well have been off-shoots of that race.

They might have been speaking a language not fundamentally different from the Vedic Aryan's when they arrived and imposed themselves upon the indigenous antocthonous tribes and other previously settled races. Was the Pisūcha language of the Kathā Literature by any means the language which they imposed upon the subject people who came into direct contact with them in the manner in which they had imposed their sovereignty upon them?

they are perpetually torn by internal feuds and . are besides continually warring with each other. He points out how the Aryan settlements have formed a kind of "no man's land" between his Empire and the Empires on the other sides of the mountains: and what an advantage it would be if the whole of this land could be brought under one sway (virāj), and civilised methods of agriculture and other arts of peace as well as roads for traffic, such as they saw established in his own country, should spread also over the Arvan lands. He is not for seeking warlike adventures in such poor countries as the Aryan settlers had made of their settlements. But these settlements are proving an all-round source of disturbance. Could they not be made to see the advantage to themselves of acknowledging his suzerainty, so that they would not only have the advantage of finding an impartial arbitrator to intervene in and settle their disputes, but by lending aid, instead of countinually offering resistance, to the execution by him of his own enlightened policies share in the peace and prosperity of his own rule?

The Brāhmaṇs appreciate the point of view, and have many more like audiences at which this and other matters are discussed, in the course of which they discover that the Great Vrātya was a free-thinker in matters of faith, and had generally a poor opinion of the forms of religion as they were observed in his own land or as, he gathered, were practised by the Aryans in theirs. But he could and did speak with great charm and persuasiveness on certain views about the origin of the world, of life and of mind, which he would discuss with his noblemen.

The net result is that they are a great deal more impressed by the Great Vrātya than the latter is by them, and keenly regret that there was not an Emperor like him to be found in all Aryan land; and they discuss, between

themselves, what a pity it was that he was a Vrātya and not an Aryan. Had he indeed been an Aryan and not a Vrātya Emperor, considering his power, magnificence wealth, culture and intelligence, his proposed invitation to the Aryan chieftains to accept his suzerainty would not have appeared as fantastic as it looked, coming from a Vrātya. Things had indeed reached such a pass in Aryan land that what had been proposed by the Eka-Vrātya would impress the very backwoodsmen, even amongst the Aryan chieftains, as the only possible way out, if only he were not a Vrātya. The idea now dawns in the mind of the most intelligent of the strangers: Why not propose to the Great Vrātya that he, his people (the nobles as well as the common folk) and his land should all accept Aryanism and become Aryan?

At the next audience, he explains to the Great Vratya how he has been minimising the difficulties in the way of his overtures to the Aryan chieftains, to accept his overlordship, obtaining a favourable reception. Unlike His Majesty, the Aryan chieftains and priests, and in fact the vis as a whole, thought a great deal of their religion and They would never bend their heads religious practices. If only he, as the grhapati of this fair before a Vrātva. Kingdom and its population, would go through a certain simple ceremony and thereby accept for him and them the Aryan sacrament, matters would be immediately placed on a most favourable footing. His Majesty, so far as he has been able to observe, did not care two straws what ceremonies were actually observed in his kingdom or even in his household: whether they were Vrātya or Aryan was all one to him. And acceptance of the Aryan sacrament will not also necessarily mean the immediate abandonment by him and his people of the practices to which they were They, the Brahmans, have been wont to accustomed. A5.

make things rather easy for strangers and people newly admitted to Aryanism.14

For themselves, the more they thought of the plan, the more it appeared to gain in attractiveness and feasibility. The common folk were more given to superstitions and odd practices than the men of the vis in their own settlements; but they were on the other hand more easily led. and will do whatever they are told. That they knew nothing of yajñas and sattras did not matter so long as the immigrant Brāhmans remained too few to perform them in proper style and not too many to be absorbed in the King's service. And as regards the spells and other necromancies. these, as they were performed, were rather outlandish, but not very dissimilar from some of those which the Brāhmans themselves could barely do without in their own lands. The gods had been very good to the Aryans, giving them a sufficiency of food and cattle, progeny and power, and had been specially good in strengthening their strong right arms against human enemies, but even they failed to help and succour upon occasions; diseases, for instance, were known to have often yielded to spells and charms when sattras held at great expenditure of resources seemed to be of no avail. This land truly was a land of plenty, but it was a land also of divers bodily ills and mysterious ailments; of snakes and man-eating tigers who might get you, you know not when or how; and every third man or woman here was

<sup>14</sup> Witness the Conversion Vrātyastoma as described by Baudhāyana; and Lātyānana's account of the Śyenābhichāra of the Vrātīnas prescribed in the Sadviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. Vrātīnas, according to Patañjali, were नानाजातीया श्रानियतवृत्तय उत्तेदजीविनः संघाः, nondescript gangs of labourers, drawn apparently from all kinds of communities, whose one point in common was that they did not organically belong to the viś (Lātyā. VIII. 5). The ceremony is classed in the Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra amongst the श्रागन्तुका विकास: (IX. 7)

known to be a sorcerer or a witch. The practices which were observed appeared to serve their purpose and might be allowed to remain. Their normal grhya practices appeared truly to be extremely outlandish; but there was no reason for doubting that they could be persuaded in time to abandon them in favour of approved Aryan practices by judicious schooling and propaganda of the right kind.

From the Brāhman immigrants' personal point of view, the chief recommendation of the plan was that once it was carried out their own promotion from their present precarious position as casual foreign intriguers and court-parasites to the rank of the King's Chancellor and chaplain, of ministers, councillors and priests, stood assured.

The Brāhman immigrants' advocacy in favour of holding a Great Vrātyastoma ceremony strikes responsive chords in the hearts and imaginations of the Emperor and his Rājanya following, free-thinkers and statesmen almost to a man. It is a very practicable scheme too. No real breach of continuity in the existing order will occur. Their own rājakarmāni were likely to improve in attractiveness and artistic flavour in the hands of this superior breed of priests. There was no question that his own prestige and influence in Aryan land will rise and be placed on a higher and securer footing, which will be independent altogether of the personal factor.

The bargain is struck; the concordat is agreed to.

The details of the ceremony are worked out in close consultation between the King and the Rājanyas on the one hand and the Brāhman strangers on the other. It is the Great Vrātya who proposes that immediately after the conversion ritual is concluded, and as a part of it in fact, there should be a Rājasūya consecration of himself, now the greatest of Aryans, as the suzerain Emperor of all Aryan peoples and lands. It is a ceremony with which his people

are familiar though it is naturally unknown in Aryan land where they have no crowned rulers, and it would, if held with due pomp and ceremony, strike the imagination of his subjects as no mere  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$ , a foreign rite practised for the first time in these regions, is likely to do.

There thus comes to pass, after due advertisement and preparations in which the co-operation of every order and caste is enlisted, a sattra or yajña the like of which, in magnificence and impressiveness, had not been witnessed in either Aryan or Vrātya land within the memory of man.

Is it to be wondered at that such a ceremony should leave behind it reminiscences which induce a Court chronicler of a later age (now thoroughly Brāhmaṇised, if not a Brāhmaṇ himself) to describe it as the greatest of consecration ceremonies, the first ever held, to celebrate and sanctify the coronation of the first Imperial King of all Aryan land, adding thereto the poetical gloss that Prajāpati himself (a new admission, by the way, of Vrātya origin into the Vedic Pantheon) took upon himself the direction of this great yajña, and that the rṣis, the devas and every order of creatures in the universe came forward and willingly participated in this celebration?

The Great Vrātya, the Eka-Vrātya of the Vrātya Book of the Atharva Veda, is no other than the Pṛthu Vainya of the Purāṇas, the first amongst the rulers of men who, according to the Harivaṃśa, was consecrated Ruler of the Earth (व्यवाधिप) at a Rājasūya. The following is the Vāyu Purāṇa account of the consecration ceremony to which my prose description given above scarcely does justice:

तं नद्यश्च समुद्रश्च रतान्यादाय सर्व्वशः। ग्रमिपेकाय तोयं च सर्व्व एवोपतस्थिरे॥ पितामहश्च भगवानिङ्गरोभि सहामरैः। स्थावराणि च भूतानि जङ्गमानि च सर्व्वशः॥ समागम्य तदा वैष्यमभ्यषिञ्चन्नराधिपम् । महता राजराज्येन महाराजं महाद्युतिम् ॥ सोऽभिषिको महाराजो देवैरङ्गिरसः छतैः । स्रादिराजो महाराजः पृथुर्व्वोयः प्रतापवान् ॥

Vāyu Pur. 62, 130—133

[At this point the Paurānist chronicler of the Great-Vrātya Saga feels constrained to revert for a while to his original role of collector, commentator and co-ordinator of literary material from the Indo-Aryan literature for historical purposes:

European scholars have been deluded by the Aryanistic obsession to which I have drawn attention into the fundamental error of supposing that by the Conversion Vrātyastoma individual non-Vedic Aryans became Brāhmans, or as the case may be, members of some other specific Aryan caste. Caste, I shall never grow tired of repeating, had not arrived when this stoma was invented; and during the time it was in active operation this stoma was actually employed to increase the man-power of the settlement as a whole, that is of the vis. The admitted members, I conceive, individually took to or went on pursuing the profession which best suited their tastes and habits, without any let or hindrance from any quarter whatsoever.

They might even constitute themselves into an entirely new professional guild which the settlement had been without and their absorption into the vis might conceiveably in some cases have had no other objective than the supply of such a specifically felt need of the community. I do not see that these scholars pay any very great compliment to the intelligence of these early settlers (and incidentally to their own) by assuming them to have been fanatical

fools, when to be fanatical fools would have meant extinction. Nor would these settlers have been able to make the great contribution they in later times did in the production of one of the most unique civilizations of the world, if they had not possessed a plastic intelligence, able to seize and utilize opportunities as they offered. The Brāhmans were not in the beginning, and for long long ages to follow, the Pharisees they unfortunately came to be in later times. It needed circumstances of a very special nature to pervert the bulk of the descendants of a highly intelligent breed of organisers and statesmen into the most downright kind of scribes and pedants known to history.

Dr. Caland is mystified to find that the Conversion Vrātyastoma in the Panchavimsa Brahmana, an ekāha like the other Vrātyastomas, makes a necessity of the grhapati, who is usually called for only in the case of a sattra, as for instance in the Great Sixtyone Days' Sattra described in PB XXIV. 18, which the introductory texts was first performed by the Deva Vrātyas with Budha as their sthapati (grhapati). The simple explanation is that this was a group-ceremony; and a grhapati or sthapati was a necessity to represent the group, which might be a family, a tribe or a whole people even. The other stomas were meant for the reclamation or restoration to communion of individuals, and hence no grhapati or sthapati is mentioned in their connection except in the later literature of the Sutras when the Conversion stoma had ceased to be practised and the very object of that stoma had been forgotten, and what was a real necessity in the case of that stoma was taken on into the other stomas owing to unintelligent borrowing from the traditional description of an allied ceremony going by the same name. We shall presently observe other instances of unintelligent borrowing in other directions also, all connected with the  $Vr\bar{a}tyastomas.$ <sup>15</sup>

Though an ekāha, the Conversion Vrātyastoma was also a sattra, if to have a grhapati marked a ceremony off as a sattra. It certainly had the distinction of a sattra in this case. Where was this great ekāha-sattra performed? Was it at Giribraja which was seen to be the capital city of Magadha in Jarāsandha's time? The country undoubtedly included Magadha, as I shall demonstrate when I analyse the Vrātya Book of the Atharva Veda. It must also have included the Anūpadeša and extended up to the Vindhya range in the south, if the Pṛthu-Vaiṇya legend is taken to be, as I believe it is, a Paurāṇic rendering of the great event. The Anūpadeša certainly included Anga and probably also comprised Kašī and Videha and perhaps also Košala.

And the result? The whole population of this extensive area, consisting as I have said of a conglomeration of different castes and peoples, became through the magic power of this Brāhmaṇic ekāha-sattra, as though at one stroke, an Aryan viś, and the whole country was transformed into a part, and much the greater part indeed of Āryāvarta, so that the centre of gravity of this Neo-Aryanism all at once swung to the East. There is evidence, otherwise unintelligible, of a missionary movement rolling westward.

There is another alternative explanation which I would have considered quite admissible if I had not come across these other instances of unintelligent adaptation. That explanation is that the second, third and fourth Vrātyastomas were adapted and altered to serve when needed the purpose of the first by including in them the institution of a sthapati for the very appreciable advantage such an adaptation would mean Brāhmans in the way of dakṣiṇās, the original aversion to pollution by the sins of the converts' unregenerate state having by then worn off by use and wont or having, as was more likely, been gotten over by the sophistry of doctrinal rationalisation.

Converted Vrātyas of Kuruland, it will be seen, cannot be restrained by their own fathers from going out to Pāńchāla to proselytise and convert the Vrātyas of that principality, only to find again that they had been forestalled there already by a Vrātya anūchāna of that place. 16 There is evidence in the Upanisads and elswhere of a Devakiputra Kṛṣṇa (see Chhandogya Up. III. 17.6.) taking lesson in the Neo-Aryanism of the Atharva Veda under Ghora, The tables are completely turned. The an Āngirasa. Panchanad, the home of the original Aryan settlements, comes to be regarded in the altered perspective as the home of Vrātya barbarianism! The Bāhikas, the Madrakas, the Āraṭṭas, for all they observe some undoubtedly Aryan practices and because they do not follow those or all those that came to be regarded as orthodox in Kuru-Pānchāla under the New Dispensation, or because they follow others that are not approved in this latter country at this date, are abused as Vrātyas, in the Mahābhārata by (of all persons) Karna, a Sūta, and even so, Salya, the King of the Madrakas is scarcely able to put up more than a half-hearted defence !

All Vedic scholars are agreed that the centre of gravity of Vedic Aryanism did in fact and reality pass from the Panchanad eastward, over the Sarasvati, and that the "Redaction of the Vedas" took place subsequently to that event. These and other quite legitimate findings have to be given their appropriate settings in a new historical perspective, if my hypothesis has not overshot its mark.<sup>17</sup>

16 Baudhāyana Śrauta Sütra XVIII. 26. It is more fully dealt with infro.

<sup>17</sup> Upon this point, I need only give Weber's views which have been generally accepted. According to him, from the internal evidence furnished by the Rk-mantras, "Indian people appear in the most

And, be it marked, noted, and recorded here that caste, according to that hypothesis, entered into the Aryan world and into the Aryan scheme of life through the back-door of this great  $ek\bar{u}ha-sattra$ .

Now to go back to the Great Vrātya and his Court ]

I can now picture the most intelligent amongst the visiting Aryan Brāhmans being installed in the position of the King's Chancellor (Purohit). He has already

ancient of the texts to be settled on the bank of the Indus, divided into a number of small tribes, in a state of mutual hostility, leading a patriarchal life as husbandmen and nomads." "There are no castes as yet, the people is still one united whole and bears but one name that of visas, settlors." He then imagines an eastward mass-migration to Hindustan. "The connection," he continues, "with the ancestral home on the Indus remained of course at first a very close one; later on, however, when the new Brahmanical organisation was completely consolidated in Hindustan, a strong element of bitterness was infused into it since the Brahmans looked upon their own (that is to say, Western) kinsmen who had remained true to the customs of their forefathers as apostates and unbelievers." "It was", according to him, "at the period when the Brahmanical hierarchy was fully devoloped, when the Kośala-Videhas and Kuru-Panchalas (who are to be regarded as having been specially instrumental in effecting it) were in their prime," that the Redaction of the rk-mantras took place. It is to explain this change of venue that he assumes a mass-emigration of the Aryan people from the Indus across the Sarasvatī towards the Clanges. Having made this assumption, he seeks to discover its cause. "Was it," he asks himself, "the pressure brought about by the arrival of new settlers? Was it excess of population? Or, was it only the longing for the beautiful tracts of Hindustan? Or perhaps, all these causes combined?" (I refrain from quoting the sentence which follows, because it is a pulpable misreading of the extraordinarily interesting and suggestive legend of Videgha Mathava narrated in the Satapatha Brahmana, which I deal with in its proper place later. See Weber, History of Indian Literature, Popular Edition, pp 34, 37-39. I do not also accept his mass-emigration hypothesis, which too I shall have occasion to notice later.

remarked upon his Royal Master's contempt for all forms and ceremonies of religion, Vedic or the local (which, for reasons which I shall not keep back from my readers much longer, I shall hereafter frequently designate as Atharvanic). He has also already sampled his Master's love for theological and cosmogonic speculation, and it does not take him long to discover, behind what appeared at first to be a royal hobby, a very firm hold over a body of doctrines, as original as they are attractive, and in breadth, freedom and sweep unlike anything he had heard dreamed of or even imagined in his own native settlement of resounding The Purohit inevitably becomes yajnas and sattras. his yajmāna's pupil, and together they often explore that moving El Dorado of great thoughts and mighty conceptions of which his Royal Master held the key, the magic world of the Upanisads.

Besides possessing a specially acute and highly receptive intellect, the Purohit, by the grace of *Brahman*, happens to be endowed also with a talent for rhapsodical compositions which in his native land obtained for its happy

possessor the title of rsi (seer).

There comes now an occasion when the poet-priest feels within himself the inspiration to hymn the wonderful attributes of the marvellous personality he has discovered in his Master, the incomparable Eka-Vrātya. It is thus that the first Ātharvaṇic Royal Purohit to the first Consecrated Vrātya-Aryan Emperor has the impulse to compose that extraordinary mosaic of poetry and truth (Wahreit und Dichtung) which he has left to the world as the Vrātya Book of the Atharva Veda; and it is to this poet-priest again, no doubt, that the world has cause to be thankful for leaving to it an even more massive composition in the same epic strain, the celebrated Bhauma Sūkta of the Atharva Veda (AV XII. 1) in which the world (Pṛthivī) of the Eka-Vrātya

is pictured as even the Purāṇas have not been able to portray the Pṛthivī ruled by Vaiṇya-Pṛthu. It is without doubt or question the same Pṛthivī. Equally without doubt or question must the name of the Eka-Vrātya (if one must needs be given him) be Pṛthi or Pṛthu Vaiṇya.

### Section VI

# Analysis of the Vrātya Book. Net results of the Great Conversion-Consecration Ceremony.

To European scholars, the Vrātya Book of the Atharva-Veda, AV Book XV (which, whatever else it may mean, does appear on the face of it quite naively and undisguisedly to extol and adore the "Unbeliever," has been a very citadel of puzzles. They have endeavoured to penetrate this stronghold of unsolved enigmas from every direction, only to come back baffled after each attempt. Not only is no agreement to be met with amongst the respective theories and hypotheses that have been propounded in their writings, the same author is seen to be at variance with himself. I choose Bloomfield's as an example; and I do this in the full consciousness and faith that Bloomfield's analysis of the Atharva-Veda is one of the most striking examples of mature scholarship, joined with the exercise of an acute and sympathetic judgment,

18 "Unbeliever" has been a name of evil repute in Europe, as in India, since religious bigotry took possession of peoples' minds in either country. In neither, has it relaxed its hold sufficiently yet to enable writers and scholars of the present day to place themselves in the detached mental condition of the Brāhman priest-poet who has been credited in the previous Section with the authorship of the Vrātya Book.

It is interesting to note that the term "Vrātya" which in the Vrātya Book is made to stand for all that is praiseworthy and exalted and which in the heyday of Varna-āśrama-dharma comes as unequivocally to signify the abominated unbeliever and outcaste still offers itself to Upanisadists of this later age as the most fitting to designate the saṃskāra-less-ness of the transcendent soul. Praśna Up. II. 11:

the general soundness of which stands in no need whatever of certification by me. My criticisms of the particular passage which I am going to extract, for illustrative purposes only, are not to be taken to minimise in the slightest degree my appreciation of the obligations I owe to his brief masterpiece of a hundred and twenty four pages, 19 which to students of Vedic literature is literally worth its weight in gold. Of the Vrātya Book (Book XV) of the Atharva Veda, Bloomfield says:

"There can be no doubt that the theme is in reality Brahmā but section 5 which introduces the murties of Rudra shows it to be under Sivaitic influence. The Vrātya (Vrātīna) seems to be a kind of Brahmachārin or at any rate one who has entered the Brahmanical community after having been converted from an Aryan but non-Brāhmanical tribe. This is the theme of the so called Vrātyastoma, described specially in the Srauta books of the SV (PB XVII 1; LŚ 8. 6). These rites make it possible for an unholy half-savage community to become Brāhmans. The connection between the Vrātva Book and the Vrātvastoma is not to be questioned: in XV. 2, the statement that faith has become his paramour, holy words (mantras) his Magadha (outcaste associate) clearly refers to the conversion of the Vrātya; the occurrence of such words as uṣṇīṣa, pratoda and vivatha in AV XV 2 as well as PB XVII 1. 14 clinches the connection still further. The Vrātya having become holy through his acquired brahmacharyam is emphatically the representative of Brahma; like the Brahmacharin (XI 5) he is apotheosised. The mention of a large number

<sup>19</sup> The Atharva Veda and the Gopatha Brāhmana. By Maurice Bloomfield. Encyclopedia of Indo-Aryan Research, Vol. II, Part I B.

of  $s\bar{a}mans$  in the book seems to point to some sort of connection with the schools of the Sama Veda. The contents are too abstruse and too absurd for analysis." (P. 94).

That a writer of Bloomfield's scientific acumen should in the course of so short a passage have made himself responsible for such a multitude of facile assumptions and exaggerations has appeared to me to be a greater enigma than any to be met with in the Vrātya Book itself. I have underlined all the statements which have struck me as unsound, though for my present purpose I need notice only some of them.<sup>20</sup>

The contents of the Vrātya Book are neither abstruse nor absurd. Compared with many other portions of the Atharva Veda it appears to me to be quite perspicuous in meaning and intention and as admitting of the most illuminating explanation and analysis. This analysis and explanation I shall now attempt.

20 Two of the statements, namely, that the convert must originally have been an Aryan and that he became after conversion a Brahman, I have dealt with already. To speak of "Sivaitic influences" determining the contents of a Sūkta of the Atharva Veda is an extreme instance of the common error of putting the cart before the horse. It is quite true however that "Rudra," for all that the name is borrowed from the RgVeda, is a non-Vedic-Aryan deity whom the Vedic Pantheon of later days took over from amongst the gods who were worshipped in the Eastern Vratya land. Also the samans no more belonged exclusively to the schools of the Sama Veda than did the rchas to the schools of the Rg Veda or the yajur texts to those of the Yajur Veda. Therefore to cite samans in large numbers (or small) is no proof at all that the person citing must have had "some sort of connection with the schools of the Sāma Veda" I have, for instance, no connection with the schools of Bloomfield or Weber though I have been citing them repeatedly. Again, Vrātyas and Vrātīnas were by no means identical entities. The other statements will be dealt with expressly or by necessary implication in the pages to follow.

In the first Paryaya, the Vratya, the subject of the psalmody, is said to have stirred up (by the power of prayer, it must be understood) Prajapati, and the Prajapati he has stirred up is seen by him as Brahman, Isana, Mahādeva (texts 1-5). In plain prose this means that the Vrātya was a worshipper of the great new Deities who, taken over no doubt from the religious beliefs of the Vrātya Rājanyas of the East, have now got added to the Vedic Pantheon (a point which will need further elucidation), and that through such worship he has attained the knowledge of the highest of Divinities, the Brahman within himself<sup>2</sup>; and is in other words, a brahmavid. Naturally, therefore, it is a Brahmavādin (text 8) who bears witness to what is stated in texts 6 to 8, namely, that through the power obtained by his worship of these gods and his knowledge of Brahman, he (the Vrātya, not Prajāpati as the scholars would have it) overcomes domestic and foreign foes and becomes Eka-Vrātya, the sole ruler (sole ruler in the secular sense, that is to say) of the Vrātya world.

His physical conquests thus outlined, the second Paryāya goes on to portray his spiritual triumphs. The gods and the sāmans accompany the brahmavid (प्रं विद्वार) Vrātya as he moves about from quarter to quarter. This trick of allegory by which the Vedic Pantheon and the other Vedic institutions are made to serve the brahmavid is worked to death in the Āraṇyakas of the Brāhmaṇas and in the literature of Upaniṣads as a whole. But the technique is by no means confined to this particular field; for, as Bloomfield has observed, the Vedic Pantheon is brought down and made to participate in even the common peoples'

<sup>21</sup> The Brahman so conceived is of course the soul not only of himself but of the whole universe, the Ātman which is the active principle of the universe and the Brahman within the self, immanent in and transcending both.

customs and superstitions not only in the Atharva Veda but also in the ritual practices dealt with in the Grhya Sūtras. But the most remarkable passages in this Prayava are those in which, in a like vein, the poet-priest describes certain other more or less abstract conceptions as well as several attributes of nature as following the Vrātya in his progressions as though they were his पुंत्रली (harlot) and Māgadha. These descriptions fix the Great Vrātya's seat unequivocally in the country of Magadha. The apparently inseparable association of the Vrātya with the Māgadha will come up for separate treatment. The Pumschali association my be disposed of at once. Even in the late days of the Mahābhārata, Magadha is still spoken of as the great country for this institution; for Karna, the Sūta King of Anga (and who should know better?) is found offering as reward for services demanded श्यामा (nut-brown?) Magadhi slave-girls decked and trained in music and other like accomplishments (Mahābhā. Karna 38.7,18). Throughout the Indo-Aryan land, in the days of the Mahābhārata, hetaerae appear as a public institution, accompanying Royalty in all State progressions and taking an ornamental part in all State ceremonies. Scholars with Aryan proclivities may take heart from my assurance that the Vrātya Book and the Mahabharata between them furnish no justification for claiming the Pumschalt as a Vedic Aryan institution. It is Vrātya, that is to say, indigenous Indian in origin, and not a Vedic Aryan importation. I ought not to part with this Paryaya, without specifically noting that descriptions of conceptual peregrinations by the King in the several quarters (दिशः) in similar style becomes a part of the Rajasuya ceremony as described in the Brahmanas (Satapatha V 4. 1).

A variety of other powers and objects are made to serve the Vrātya in similar style up to the end of the

6th Paryāya. The 8th and 9th Paryāyas take in the Great Vrātya's socio-political environment, the nobility, the tribe, the kinsmen, the assembly, the gathering, the army (food and drink, very properly, not being excluded)

Paryāyas 10 to 13 are distinct from the rest of the Book in being barefaced propaganda aimed at reconciling the Aryan tribal chiefs to the benign hegemony of the Aryanised Vrātya Imperial King. That important business being disposed of to the complete satisfaction apparently of the psalmist, the account slides back again into allegory in the previous vein in Paryāya 14, tailing off finally in the remaining Paryāyas (in a somewhat Xanaduesque finale) into downright incantation and nonsensicality.

I can discern no enigma or puzzle whatever in the Vrātya Book any more than in the Brahmachārin psalmody<sup>22</sup> (AV XI. 5). Neither the Vrātya nor the Brahmachārin is "apotheosised." They are both glorified in a way later made commonplace in the Upaniṣad literature, as brahmavids in esse and in posse.

I should not, I feel, leave the Vrātya Book without a specific reference to the contents of the 6th Paryāya inasmuch as these provide valuable links to connect the Atharva Veda, and in particular the XVth Book thereof, with other literature. Here, as in the 2nd Paryāya, the theme is the Vrātya's progressions (allegorical, of course) in the several are; but the attendants he picks up are: (1) Earth, fire, herbs, forest-trees, plants. (2) Right and truth, sun, moon and the asterisms. (3) The verses (rchas), chants (sāmans) sacrificial formulae (yajurs) and the brahman (Atharva mantras). (4) The Itihāsas, the Purāṇas, the Gāthās, the Nārāśansīs. (5) Fires and offerings. (6) The months, seasons, the lokas. (7) The deities, male and female,

<sup>22</sup> As to which, see infra, Section XIII.

and virāj (dominion). Everyone of these enumerations is followed by the familiar formula of the Aranyakas of later days, namely: "of these he becomes the abode who knoweth thus ( यः एवं वेद )," the underlying idea of course being that all that ever was dreamed of as attainable by other means, whether prescribed by the Vedas or not, and everything else desirable, with the power to control and command, are attainable by the brahmavid in the same way that they were attained by the Vrātya subject of the psalmody. (In Paryaya 2 occurs another familiar variant of the formula: एवं विद्वांसं ; it is applied to the Eka Vrātya himself, and has to be read with texts 6 to 8 of Paryaya 1). The Vratva Book in this way is not political propaganda only on behalf of the Eka Vrātya; it also preaches his theosophic doctrines for the benefit apparently of the same audience, the Vedic Aryan world. The palpable subordination of everything Vedic to these doctrines, at the same time that no trick of language and allegory is left untried which would link Vedic Aryan ideas and concepts with them. would be inconceivable except on the part of a Brahman author placed in the situation I have placed him. This characteristic Upanisadic technique is later on played almost to exhaustion in the Aranyakas. The progress (in literature) of the Upanisadic theosophy from the start it obtained in the Atharva Veda, through the Āranyakas, to the free Upanisads shows three well-marked stages: (1) Linking of the Vedic doctrines, in quite a superficial manner and in a relation of complete subordination, to the (2) The inculcation of the view that the unmeaning .performance of Vedic practices (इष्टापूर्त ) by the svarga-kāma brings in but the poorest of rewards, which the brahmavid seeking to be one with the Brahman cannot regard with anything but contempt. (3) That the desire for the Vedic svarga and more so its attainment are serious

hindrances to the attainment of the Upanisadic summum bonum, since the attainment of material happiness in any degree only creates a desire for more of it which, so long as it remains unattained, causes misery and incites the subject once more to mean strivings for its attainment, and so on ad infinitum; wherefore, counsels the brahmavid, the path to true happiness lies through nibrtti (complete renunciation) and not in the perpetual hankering after the Vedic svarga or indeed after anything else mundane or super-mundane. It would, in my judgment, have been impossible for the doctrines of the Upanisads to have sprung into being in this shape and to have followed this course had they had to be concieved in the very womb of Vedic Aryanism. The Upanisads and Vedic Aryanism are different genera altogether, with no traceable bloodconnection between them. And this is not all. Doctrines which are covertly condemnatory (from their very birth) of Aryan religious beliefs and practices and which end by being positively denunciatory of them are all throughout allowed by the Brahmans themselves to repose upon the Vedas as their very crown and summit (Vedanta)! Such a miraculous occurrence presupposes one and only one origin: The Upanisadic doctrines grew up independently and away from all contacts with the Vedic Aryans, and in the brains of the Vrātya Rājanyas; and that further these doctrines found their Constantine, at the very first moment of their contact with Vedic Aryanism, in the brahmavid Eka Vrātya, nobly seconded in this no doubt by able and sincerely appreciative Brahman pupils and co-adjutors. Nominally, the Vrātya and his people became converts to Aryanism. In fact and truth, and as concerned the domain of opinions, ideas, doctrines and beliefs, it was the Brāhman missionaries who were converted to Upanisadic theosophy and became in turn the missionary preachers of this Neo-Aryanism which subordinated the faith and beliefs of the Aryan Brāhmans (a matter chiefly of mantras and rituals) to the theosophic faith and doctrines of the Eastern Vrātya Rājanyas. The repeatedly affirmed statement, found in the Brāhman-made literature of the Āranyakas, that the knowledge of these doctrines was originally esoteric amongst the Rājanyas, to whom (for obtaining access to this knowledge) Brāhmans versed to the saturation-point in the knowledge of the Vedas had to go to school (samid in hand) would be utterly incomprehensible except on the above supposition.<sup>2</sup> 3

Paryāya 7 returns to the Vrātya himself. His greatness, the first text says, "becomes sessile, goes to the ends of the earth and becomes ocean". One must allow for poetic exaggerations, even in reference to the Eka Vrātya of the psalmody, and the statement must be taken to have been a highly coloured one. But a successor came in the fulness of time upon his throne in reference to whom at any rate the statement appears to have been prophetic. The greatness of Aśoka, a brahmaid Eka Vrātya, if ever there was one, not only spread to the ocean but even overpassed it.

I hope I shall be found to have not unsatisfactorily accounted for all the statements I have underlined in the extract from Bloomfield with which I opened my treatment of the Vrātya Book, except the one which concerns the Māgadha. This too I hope to account for in the same way in its proper context.

<sup>23</sup> The argument is further pursued in the next Section.

#### Section VII

## Concerning Methodology;

## Or, the Palaeontology of History.

It is necessary at this stage that I should define with precision the nature of the task I have taken upon myself and the method I am employing to solve it.

The task is the recovery of lost history, lost beyond recovery or recall so far as written narratives go, for the record of any kind of writing left by the people whose history has to be recovered began when all this history as a whole had been over and done with; and the writers of this record and of those that followed did not realise the necessity and had no notion at all of reducing into writing the events that had happened, even assuming that the events themselves had survived in living memory in a condition which admitted of their reproduction as history.

But this written literature contains fossil deposits from earlier event-strata. What recovery can be made must be made on the strength of these dislodged fossil data. The investigation is archaeological or palaeontological in character (the latter much more than the former), the material being literary material.

The digging out, from these written records, of indubitable fossil historical material is the first and by far the most important part of this work. The next step is to trace each fossil to the original stratum to which it was organically related and from which it had been dislodged,

and to indicate, if possible, the forces or currents which caused it to be carried and embedded in the environment in which it is found but to which it did not organically belong. In general, the displaced deposit is unerringly recognised by its incongruity (the more complete the better) with the environment in which it is discovered. I am afraid that, broadly speaking, not only is there no general appreciation amongst scholars of the value of literary incongruities; the common tendency is to discount them as "freaks" or inconsequentialities.

Such data are found embedded in not inconsiderable quantities in the Vedic and Paurāṇic literatures. The whole Vrātyastoma literature is a very museum of fossil deposits which can be pieced together and made to tell a quite connected story. The Atharva Veda, on the other hand, is a bed very rich in fossils drawn from quite a number of different more or less contemporary sources. A recent material, again, found in an apparently old stratum may tell as good history as the reverse: Witness, for example, the Puruṣasūkta of the Rgveda (Rv. X 90) and the very last Sāmmanasya Sūkta of the same Veda (X 191) amongst others, of which use will be made later. Let us call these "negative fossils," fossils with the minus sign, since they are just as tell-tale as the normal variety.

The statements found several times repeated in the Brāhmaṇas that the Upaniṣad doctrines were originally esoteric amongst the Kṣatriyas is of historical value only on account of its incongruity (this I have shown); and the same remark applies to the manner in which these doctrines are found disposed as the crown and summit of the Vedas in the Śrauta literature, in spite of their scarcely disguised uncongeniality with and later more openly advertised hostility to and even contempt for all Śrauta notions and practices.

But fossils like these tell no tale to the investigator without imagination; and the imagination to be productive of real history has to be both plentiful and "parsimonious" at one and the same time. But to dismiss tell-tale incongruities such as I have mentioned as casual slips and inconsequentialities shows, to my mind, a total lack of scientific imagination, besides lack of judgment. The highly self-disserving statement occurring again and again in Brāhman-made literature acknowledging the Kṣatriya copyright in the basic material of the Vedānta has been actually dismissed by scholars of repute on the ground that the statement is lacking in proof!

The whole of this literature is of set policy and purpose self-laudatory. In legal proceedings, self-laudatory statements are never as a rule accepted as evidence unless they have been tested by cross-examination and other related safeguards. Self-disserving statements on the other hand are taken to prove themselves and to carry their own hall-mark of veracity. This is not law only, but very sound sense. Every statement derogatory to Brāhmaṇical pretensions occurring in this advisedly self-laudatory Brāhmaṇ-made literature is invaluable as evidence.

The statement several times repeated, and in varying conexts, assigning the authorship of the basic Vedānta doctrines to the Kṣatriyas not only proves itself but proves more than it actually says. It affirms that the doctrines were originally confined within the Kṣatriya order. If the reference be taken to be to the Kṣatriyas of the Aryan viŝas, this last affirmation would be incredible because of its utter impossibility, if not also of its incomprehensibility.

<sup>24</sup> The "law of parsimony" in science is, that assumptions must not overpass their necessity and should be limited to the necessity. It must not be random and wild speculation.

The Brahmans and the Ksatriyas in the Aryan visas were not even separate castes yet. They were holders of offices, and the same family might supply holders of both kinds of offices. There is no evidence that the Ksatriyas in any vis constituted a kind of masonic guild all by themselves. In religious matters, the lives of all and every member of the community lay as an open book before the officiating Brahmans. And the statement to be credible with reference to the Aryan Ksatriyas would have to presuppose the existence of a super-organised free-masonry amongst the Ksatriyas of the entire Aryan land, to whatever separate vis units they might have belonged, and the maintenance too (as a closely guarded secret institution) of this widely diffused free-masonry, for generations on end, until particular Brāhmans by special favour, in a somewhat light-hearted manner, were let into these secret doctrines which thus became all at once public property, whereupon that highly organised and incredibly perfect ancient masonic institution collapsed through sheer lack of a raison d'etre.

If the statement in question be true, as it must be, it must refer to the Vrātya Rājanyas of the East who, as I have indicated, did form a separate order, a close-knit caste which kept the other castes, even their bard-priests, at a respectable distance. The analogy furnished by the inner lives of the consuls, censors and other high officials of the Roman Republican Empire must therefore fail at this point unless the existence should be assumed in Rome also of conditions which can be supposed to have existed in the Eastern Vrātya-land alone. The Kṣatriyas of the Aryan settlements did not live in any kind of water-tight compartment and could not even do so. The Rājanyas of the Vrātya country both could and did.

In the conditions obtaining in the Vrātya country of Magadha and the Anūpadeśa, the high esoteric religious philosophy of the Rājanyas had to remain esoteric, if for no other reason than because the rest of the population were, in literal fact, intellectually unfit to receive instruction in it.

The general population was sunk in superstition, and the officiating priests, the Sūtas and the Māgadhas, were no better than mere vendors of spells and charms. This picture of conditions prevailing in Vrātya land is, I submit, borne out to the letter by the contents of the Atharva Veda, made alive and communicative by the application of the scientific historic imagination. The Atharva Veda presents in fact a whole bed of contemporary fossil deposits which it does not need much scientific imagination to weave together into coherent, credible and substantially true history.<sup>25</sup>

The Purāṇas too disclose similar deposits of incongruous material, all of singular historical worth. Such will be found in most of the references to the Sūta and the Māgadha, and of these I am making the fullest use. Draupadī's marriage with the five Pāṇḍavas, and almost every item said and recorded of Kṛṣṇa, his kith and kin and of the Yādava confederacy (save for passages which are self-condemned exaggerations or meant only for his deification), in particular the incidents and statements which show him up as riding roughshod after the manner of a Napoleon over all contemporary notions of morality and propriety are, for the same reason, of bed-rock historical value. And every reference to Magadha and every statement bearing on that country and its institutions, I have tested and found to be for historical purposes extremely

<sup>25</sup> See Sections IX and Xinfra.

The Purana material has been mercilessly valuable. Brāhmanised for propaganda purposes to points far exceeding those to which that process had been carried or had even been found necessary to be carried in treating the materials of the Atharva Veda. The recovery of the latter thus presents fewer difficulties than the recovery of the original Paurānic historical and saga material. But I consider it quite feasible, nevertheless, to recover what I may designate as the original Draupadī Saga from out of the highly Brahmanised version of the Kuru-Pandava feud as it is found presented in the extant Mahābhārata. It will be a fine exercise, and I propose to attempt it in the concluding Section, just to see what kind of a trail may be blazed by pioneer work in this yet uncharted field. It will have to be made by others if not by me; and I propose to do it less for the sake of the substantial results expected to be immediately achieved than for the purpose of developing methods of enquiry which in the circumstances appear to be the best calculated for recovering lost history. I hope, too, that the results actually obtained by this pioneer effort on my part will prove to be not altogether devoid of intrinsic value and interest.

For the present, I desire to be forgiven for this digression into Methodology, a subject which in the circumstances outlined cannot be otherwise regarded than as being of prime importance for the kind of investigation with which this book is concerned.

#### Section VIII

# Identity of the Worlds of Pṛthu-Vaiṇya And of the Eka-Vrātya.

I have tried to visualise the Eka-Vrātya as the Prince of brahmavids and as the Emperor of a world of far larger dimensions and of a wider horizon than the world of the Aryan visas which I had previously depicted. His virāj (dominion), we have seen, extends to the ocean. The Vrātya Book has preferred not unduly to emphasise or particularise the physical background of the Great Vrātya to the prejudice of his other aspects and attributes. But this physical setting in all the magnificence of its sweep and the richness of its details is supplied in another great psalmody of which the subject is Bhumi or Prthivi (Book XII 1), one of the finest conceived in literature. The Great Vrātya's Empire was not confined, as were most of the Aryan principalities, within an area of a few hundred square miles which could be covered by a vipatha 26 in a day or two at most.

The vipatha, I need hardly remind the reader, is the ramshackle car which forms one of the equipments of the Vrātya grhapati in the Vrātyastoma for conversion, described in the Panchaviņśa Brāhmaṇa (XVII 1.) The Śrauta doctors, Śāndilya and Dhānanjaya, discourse learnedly upon what kind of a vehicle this was, not apparently having seen a vipatha themselves, but agree that it was a rather shaky contraption, the shakiness being imparted to it by the perverse composition or character of the animals employed to draw it ! Lātyāyana, apparently drawing from observed data, says it was needed at each could be contained to the satural content of the satural content o

It is a world which is familiar with the Sūta (hailing from Anga) as one of the rajakrts (king-makers, AV III 5.7) and the Magadha as a close associate of the King. It not only includes Anga and Magadha but has its centre of gravity depending in the East, beyond (that is to say) the river Sadānīrā of the Videgha Māthava legend of the Satapatha Brāhmana (I 4. 1. 10-17), which at its time separated Videha from Kośala and which (pace Savana) could not possibly be the Karatoya of our day which borders on Bogra 27 This world might very well have also included Videha and Kośala, and possibly the whole of the Anupadesa of the Prthu Vainya legend of the Puranas with the Sarasvatī as its western boundary. literature of the Atharva Veda, the tiger (the most distinctive inhabitant of the Anupadesa) who is never once mentioned in the RgVeda competes with the lion and even prevails over him as a familiar literary figure; but he is more than only a literary figure, for it is on the skin of this King of the eastern Indian forests, the terror of men and beasts in those parts, and on it only that the consecration of the King can take place (AV IV 8. 2). When this amongst other rājakarmāni, borrowed from the Atharva Veda or other like Vrātya sources, the Brāhman priesthood find themselves constrained to Brahmanise ("rishify," in Bloomfield's happy characterisation) for incorporation

make suited for progression over bad roads. **Example 1** which Prthu is credited with having made apparently admitted of being traversed by this kind of springless vehicles, as a rule. The vipatha and usuita are both mentioned along with the Mägadha and the Puṃśchalī in the Second Paryāya of the Vrātya Book (vide extract from Bloomfield at p. 45 supra).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> This legend comes up for detailed examination in Section XIV infra.

into their table of hieratic sattras and yajñas, they do it itiger's skin and all.28

The Prthivi (Bhūmi) of the Atharva Veda (allowing of course for poetical exaggerations) has expanded in all directions, touching the heavens above and the ocean around. The world of the Panchamanavas of yajnas and kratus, of rsis and rtvijas, of sattras held in honour of Agni, Soma and Indra shrinks into parochial dimensions in comparison, for this is a world of tribes, assemblies, gatherings and armies, an earth again supporting on her broad, hospitable surface, places and peoples of different speeches and very varied local customs, an earth which the person into whose mouth the psalmody is put is made to claim that he has subdued and brought under his sole dominion. It is a Prthivi of very variegated geographical features: of sindhus (flowing rivers), oceans, steep ascents (उद्भत), heights (प्रवत) and plains (सम); and the wealth she places at the disposal of her children is not exhausted by the enumeration which the Panchavimsa Brahmana is led, in its most expansive of imaginative flights, to make (namely, where it describes the transformation in the Earth's productivity effected through the performance by Daiva Vrātyas of the Great Sixtyone Days' Sattra. Budha acting as sthapati, PB XXIV 18: the sattra is said to have made the earth burst with milk, butter,

<sup>2 8</sup> The "tiger's skin" is not mentioned in the Panchavinsa Brāhmaṇa. The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, however, not only requires the punarābhiṣeka ceremony to be performed on it, it explains the reason as being that "the tiger is the kṣatra (royal power) amongst the beasts of the forest" (Ait. Br. VI 5. 32-33). The tiger's skin duly appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa account (Sat. Br. V 3. 5). But no Brāhmaṇa exhibits the process of "rishification" in the making as well as the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. Note particularly its invented mythology of the mahābhiṣeka of Indra by Prajāpati and the other gods (Ait. Br. VIII 8. 12-14).

flesh, herbs and trees). It is an earth guarding for her favoured children, in her secret recesses, gems, jewels, gold and treasure (निधि, वस, मणि, हिराय). It is in fact the वयन्वरा of Prthu Vainya of the Pauranic legend, the Emperor-patron of Sūtas and Māgadhas, the King for whom Prajapati himself and the Rsis volunteered to hold the consecrating sattra, of the Prthi or Prthu-Vainya of both the Purānas and the Atharva Veda, he who taught his subjects the art of agriculture (indicating no doubt thereby the staple industry of the Eastern Empire), a world again, be it also stated, of fevers and other plagues, of witches and warlocks, of gamblers and harlots, of man-eating tigers venomous hamadryads, a world beset all round besides by demons and evil spirits who have to be constantly kept appeased or outwitted by the necromancer's art; a world too abounding in sins, committed as well as uncommitted. and consequently abounding in the same measure with prāyaśchittāni which a priest-hood as superstitious as the people for whom they officiate feel constrained meticulously to provide to neutralise and cancel each conceiveable variety of them, a world in short of dangers known and unknown, and the more fear-inspiring the less they are known and foreseeable.

But it was a world, at the same time, of great aweinspiring Deities who appeared to have scarcely anything in common with the scattered hosts who composed the Vedic Pantheon, and in might and majesty as far above Indra, Agni, the Maruts, the Visvadevas and their like as the Eka-Vrātya himself appeared to be above the chieftains of the Aryan viéas.

It is a well-attested anthropological observation that people in societies which are still in the unsophisticated primitive stage as a rule make their gods after their governors. From the position which Varuna appears to have held as the chief amongst the gods before the Vedic Aryans descended upon the plains of the Punjab (primus inter pares, but no autocrat), it can be inferred with some amount of confidence that they had left behind them conditions politically stabler and far less disturbed than what they found themselves thrown into in their new homes. It is easy also to understand how in this new environment the blusterer and bully of an Indra was able effectively to throw into the background, if not to supplant altogether, the benign and placid Varuna. There are indications that with the accession into Aryanism of the Eastern Vrātya country and the resulting shifting of the political centre of gravity to the East, there was a mild resuscitation of the Varuna cult. But in this Eastern country where, according to Kṛṣṇa's testimony, the rains never failed, Indra (his natural occupation being gone) sinks into a tricky voluptuary.29 In this country too of intensified fecundity

29 It is highly interesting in the present context to observe that, due no doubt to overpowering Atharvanic influences, the Brahmana literature finds itself constrained to consecrate Indra at a Mahabhiseka ceremony (a super-Rājasūya) before it is able to accept him as Ruler of the gods, which he decidedly was not in the Rg Veda, and that the effective mantra which is made available for this purpose is a mantra from the Rg Veda I 25. 10, which bears on the acquisition of universal rule by Varuna. See Ait. Br. VIII 3, 12-14. The strong Atharvanic influences under which this Brahmana (which is Rg Vedic by affiliation) was composed is apparent inter alia from the studied magnification of the importance to a King of the services of a Purohita which practically is the theme of the next two chapters (Ait. Br. VIII 4-5) and the special sections devoted to the Kuntapa Sastra and the Aitasapralapa. Ait. Br. VI 5. 32-33. This King-Purchita partnership is quite naturally the common theme in every species of what I have called "the post-concordat literature", namely, the Atharva Veda, the Brahmanas and the Puranas. I should not be surprised if the Rg Veda hymns which appear to attribute "royalty" to Indra and which bear on the King-Purchita partnership theme should be found by other tests to be late additions to that collection.

and death, the gods that count are the Great Vrātya Gods who, as the case may be, originate, preserve or destroy all creatures living as well as non-living, Prajāpati, Visnu, and Rudra-Īśāna-Mahādeva. There were, as indeed there could not but be, minor gods also in Vrātya land. Like the Great Vrātya and his people these too, it is noteworthy, have to obtain admission into Arvanism (into the Vedic Pantheon, that is) by a Vrātyastoma ceremony (Panchavimsa Brahmana XVII 1-2) But even Brahmanic punctilio for forms and ceremonies for solemnising acts of high religious or social significance sees the absurdity of taking the Creator, the Preserver and the Destroyer of the Universe itself into the scheme of things by Vrātyastoma.30 A general laudatory attribute which might be applied and was applied to any god when prayer was being addressed to him (प्रजापति), and names belonging to some quite minor Aryan deities (विष्णु, रद्भ)

<sup>30</sup> For all that however there are clear indications in the Purana literature showing that the admission of even these Great Gods into the Vedic Pantheon was none too peaceful; Rudra (Mahadeva) at any rate is shown to have fought his way into the Vedic Pantheon. His marriage with the eldest daughter of Prajapati Daksa by itself proves unavailing to secure him a place in this orthodox assemblage. Neither he nor his wife, Satī, is invited to Dakṣa's yajña, This angering Mahadeva the two fall to abusing and cursing each other. Out of the mutual recrimination which is reported to have taken place the following points emerge as the common case of both the parties: (i) Mahadeva Rudra has no place in the Vedic svarga, (ii) has no share also given to him in the sacrifices offered to the Suras. Mahadeva's apologia for this admitted state of things is significantly confirmatory of several aspects of my thesis. "He, Mahadeva, had been appointed by Paramesthin to uphold the Bhurloka, the first created of all the Lokas, and it is right and fitting that he should not neglect that job for svarga for which he had no hankering. As to sharing with the Suras in the sacrificial offerings he had no mind to lose his caste sitting at the same feast with all four varias of Suras who ate together without any discrimination whatsoever! For his part, therefore, he preferred that prayers, hymns

whose functions without being very distinctive yet in a vague way were suggestive of the attributes of preservation and destruction are made to shoot up into exaggerated prominence, and the functions of the Great Vrātya Deities are simply assimilated with these names. Under stress of Upaniṣadic dialectic, the members of the Trinity later lose their individuality and merge in the \$\overline{Atman-Brahman}\$ of the Vedānta (Prajāpati, during the progress of this movement, being specially designated as Brahmā to mark his pre-eminence within the Trinity itself). Popular religion as reflected in the Purāṇas adopted this Brahmā-Viṣṇu-Mahesvara scheme, and it has been the cardinal trait of current Hinduism to this day.

Mythology to order is such a trite feature of Brāhmaṇic exegetics, that to seek to discover some rationale behind any or all of them would ordinarily be lost labour. But as truth, it has been said, will out even in an affidavit, once in a while even such a mythology may indirectly reflect a historic movement. Such are the two Daiva Vrātya mythologies in PB. XVII 1. 1. and XXIV 18. 2. "The gods, forsooth" (runs Dr. Caland's translation of the

and oblations should be offered to him separately from this crowd. These and other arguments failing to convince Daksa, Mahādeva plays the very devil with the yajāa. It is thus that Daksa the Prajāpati is coerced into recognising him as grhapati and Īśvara; Brahmānda Pur. (Cal.) 31 (Bom) 13, Vāyu Pur. 30. The great Sāmmanasya Sūkta, the last of Mandala X of the Rg Veda, about which see Section XII post, it is clear from the above, must have been composed after the Daiva Vrātyas and Rudra-Īśāna-Mahādeva (as also, of course, Prajāpati and Viṣṇu) had succeeded in obtaining entry into the Vedic Pantheon (on their own terms apparently) under Vrātya Rājanya patronage.

The Purāṇas, it should be noted, make a special point of glorifying Rudra or Viṣṇu or both of them and this is one of the circumstances which bear out strongly the special relation in which, according to my thesis, the Purāṇas stand towards the Ātharvaṇic world, A9.

former) went to the world of heaven; of them the adherents of 'the God' <sup>31</sup> were left (on earth) leading a Vrātya life (वात्याम् प्रवसन्तः <sup>32</sup>). They came to the spot whence the gods had gone to the world of heaven. But they found neither that stoma nor that metre by means of which they might reach them. Then the gods said to the Maruts: 'Deliver ye to these that stoma, that metre by means of which they might reach us.' To them they (the Maruts) delivered that sixteen-versed stoma, (which) cryptically (is) the anustubh. Thereupon, they reached them.' The same scholar's translation of the other text in PB XXIV 18 is as follows: "The Vrātyas, the adherents of 'the God,' held a sacrificial session with Budha as their sthapati. They consecrated themselves without having previously

- 31 This is Dr. Caland's translation of देवा:, taking his one from the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, so that it would mean the adherents of Rudra-Téāna, which would fit the texts into my scheme admirably. In the Bandhāyana text, the mythology is foisted on the Sāvitrīpatita stoma and the expression used is देव्या बात्या:। तेन हैतेन मस्त इजिरे तेषाम् विष्णु स्थपितरासाथो हैतेन देव्या बात्या इजिरे तेषाम् वृधः सोध्य स्थपितरास। What a mess Bandhāyana does make of the PB mythologies quoted!
- 32 Dr Caland's rendering of बात्याम् प्रवसन्तः is obviously the right one. In the altered world of the Apastamba Srauta Sūtra, however, when the admission of outsiders into the Indo-Aryan social order comes to be viewed as impossible if not also unthinkable, the Sūtra-kāra simply touches up the language of the Conversion stoma so as to make it fit into the existing scheme of things. In his hands, बात्याम् प्रवसन्तः becomes बात्याम् प्रवासे so that the stoma is made applicable to Indo-Aryans who have returned from sojourn in a Vrātya country, which must necessarily have involved lapses from orthodoxy and sins thereby incurred calling for expiation. The liberties the Apastamba Śrauta Sūtra (XXII 5.4) takes with the language and intention of the stoma are thus not as blundering or irrational as are those taken in the Sūtras of Baudhāyana. The notion that sojourn in non-Brāhmanical countries has to be expiated for by prāyaśchiṭtas of some kind or other, which still lingers in Hindu India, is traceable to this origin.

begged of King Varuṇa a place for divine worship (like what, according to Baudhāyana, the human sthapati of the Conversion stoma had to do of the राजनि बाह्मणे वा). King Varuṇa cursed them: 'I preclude you from a share in the sacrifice. Ye shall not know the path leading to the gods.' Therfore, they (the others, other priests) do not take sacrificial substance (rice, barley, etc.) nor (a draught of) soma from them (to sacrifice on their behalf)" 33. Nevertheless, lower down there is a text (text 8) which advises those who, purposing to thrive (the result to be achieved as stated in text 9, the conversion motive which originated the ceremony being already obsolete), perform the ceremony "to offer, after they have settled down on the place of worship, a libation in the gārhapatya (fire) with (the

33 On behalf, that is to say, of those (humans) who, following the laudable example of the Daiva Vrātyas perform the Sixtyone-day Rite of the Vrātyas described in the Brāhmāṇa, PB XXIV 18. Amongst the rites included is the mahāvrata in which figure the harlot, the Māgadha and the Brahmachārin, a very Eastern Vrātya combination. The Sixtyone-day Sattra was really a large-scale Conversion Vrātyastoma. The text materially supports my contention that the Brāhman priests did not, at the date of the compilation of the PB texts, officiate in the Conversion Vrātyastoma. The "spots whence the gods were gone" must refer to the "god-forsaken" Non-Aryan East. These texts, whether taken as a whole or in detail, lend support to my views in a variety of ways.

Was the ceremony actually performed by the Eka-Vrātya of my Saga, after all, this Sixtyone-day Sattra and not the  $ek\bar{a}ha$ , which is all that I felt justified in assuming for reasons of scientific "parsimony"? The Sixtyone-day Sattra would be likely (far better than the  $ek\bar{a}ha$ ) to leave memories which would admit of being idealised in the manner of Prthu's  $yaj\bar{n}a$  in the Purānus. The one performed by him would in that case be the first Sixtyone-day Vrātya Sattra ever held. It could not possibly at that date have been as thoroughly Brāhmaṇised as it appears from the PB account. It is possible also that the Sūta and Māgadha priests were made to go through quite a number of Vedic ceremonies under the direction of the Brāhmaṇs. Who can say that the office of the fourth priest, brahman, did not have this very beginning?

formula): 'God Varuṇa, give us a place of divine worship.  $Sv\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ '.

This PB account of the Sixtyone-day Rite, actuallynamed in the text (1b) as "the Sixtyone-day Rite of the Vrātyas, the adherents of the God," and mythologically buttressed in the manner stated, is fine material for historico-palaeontological analysis. The tale of ceremonies in the first text in Dr. Caland's translation is: An over-night rite (1); a twentyfour-versed proceeding day (2) three abhiplava six-day periods (3-20); a six-day period with the protha (samans) (21-26); an abhijit (27); the three svarsāmani (days) (but now in reversed order) (32-34); a visvajit (35); a six-day period with the pretha (samans) beginning with the thirty-three-versed day (36-41); one abhiplava six-day period (42-47); the two-days ayus and go (48-48); the ten days of the twelve-day period (50-59); the mahāvrata (day) (60); and an over-night rite (61). And yet this inordinately over-Brahmanised ceremonial has to be performed without the aid of officiating priests, owing to its having originally been unquestionably a true Conversion Vrātyastoma though now (texts 8 and 9) it has become a rite of which a commentator might say, as the commentator of the Śankhayana Śrauta Sūtra (XIV 69) says of the Vrātyastoma (which in that Sūtra-kāra's time had become entirely divorced from the conversion and regeneration ideas and had come to be an ordinary svarga-kāma ceremony like many others which never had any Vrātya association at any time) यः कश्चित् त्रैवर्शिको अधिकारी : "anyone belonging to any of the three varnas is entitled to perform the ceremony". The यः कश्चित् त्रैवर्णिकः must thus muddle through the ceremony himself, as he must if he is not an expert Brahman priest himself. And, though he is not a Vrātya and may have been owing Varuņa religious allegiance inherited from his earliest forbears, he has

still to ask for a place of worship from this once acknowledged Samrāt of the Vedic Aryan Universe (before it was conquered and finally annexed by Prajāpati-Brahmā, to be historically precise) as though he were a Vrātya. These "incongruities" establish the claim I have made on behalf of PB XXIV 18 as a valuable fossil-bed of Indo-Aryan historico-literary materials.

I have, I hope, made out sufficient reasons to justify my statement that unlike the general run of ad hoc mythologies prepared to order which one comes across in such embarassing abundance in the Brāhmaṇas, the Vrātyastoma mythologies are of clear historical significance. They mirror and reflect a striking political occurrence and I can claim them as valuable corroborative adjuncts in support of my views.

### Section IX

## The Suta and the Magadha.

### The Fever-Charm Sukta.

The stage has now been set for the interplay of forces which, as a consequence of such interplay, gave birth to a literature and culture so astonishingly unique that every attempt to utilise for its study analogies presented by civilizations of other countries without due regard had to the uniqueness of this civilization has inevitably led to puzzlements and inconsequentialities. The literature is the literature of the Vedas, with the dependent Brahmanas (including the Upanisads) and the Sutra books (of which the Śrauta and Grhya Sūtras are the principal), all that in fact goes by the general designation of "Śrauta literature". and, lastly, the Puranas; and the culture is all that is implied in the Varna-āsrama-dharma. This literature I shall hereafter denominate "the Indo-Arvan Literature"; the culture, I shall in the same way designate as "the Indo-Aryan Culture."

But before I take up the analysis of this literature and culture in order to discover their relation to the forces to which the impact of the two civilizations so diametrically contrasted as the Vedic Aryan civilization of the Aryan West and the Vrātya civilization of the Non-Aryan East gave birth, I must dispose of two other subjects who are still weighing on my conscience: the Sūta and the Māgadha. Justice, I hope, has been done to the third, the Puṃśchalī hetaera; and it is indeed a source of unalloyed satisfaction to me that this has been

found possible 'without touching pro-Aryan or Aryan-inherited sensibilities. The problem that arose in her connection did not concern herself; it was her association with the Vrātya that called for explanation. That explanation has been furnished, I hope, to everybody's satisfaction<sup>34</sup>.

Whilst the profession and function of the *Pumśchalī* have been as transparent as (notoriously) were some of her habiliments, those of the Sūta and the Māgadha remain, to all appearance, shrouded in impenetrable mystery. The riddles these have presented to scholars have beaten even those presented by the Eka-Vrātya himself.

In Keith-Macdonell's Vedic Index, against the caption "Sūta," it is observed that this is the name of a court official often mentioned with the gramani He, like the gramani, is one of the eight vīras (the others are the King's brother, his son, the queen-consort, the house-chaplain, the charioteer and the chamberlain) who "sustain" the King at the Rāja-Ekāha ceremony described in PB XIX 1. 4 and one of the eleven ratnins (jewels: they include most of the above eight) found figuring in the Rajasuva ceremony as described in the later Brahmanas (Satapatha Br. V 3. 1. 5); we have seen him described as a rajakrt (which must mean the same thing as vīra, "sustainer") in AV III 5. 7. His inclusion in the omnibus enumerations of the Satarudriya and Purusamedha texts (duly noted in the Index) has no special significance, so far as I can see. The only thing the Note, taken as a whole, appears to me to have conclusively brought out is that modern commentators (Eggeling, Bloomfield, Roth, Whitney, Weber and Hopkyns are cited by name, and in this galaxy must be included the authors of the Index themselves) can get

<sup>34</sup> See p. 48 supra.

as keenly exercised over the problem of what exactly was the profession, function or purpose in life of a Sūta, as the Sūtra scholiasts, Śāṇḍilya, Dhānañjaya and Lātyāyana were found to have been over the precise make-up of the vipatha. The one fact of prime significance registered in this conscientious catalogue of odds and ends is that in the Śatarudriya texts the Sūta is spoken of as "inviolable". But why out of the variety of occupations which the Śrauta and Purāṇa literatures plainly testify the Sūtas to have followed at their individual choice, this one circumstance should have led the authors of the Index finally to tie the Sūta down to the single occupation of a "bard-herald", I for one fail entirely to understand.

The Vainya-Pṛthu legend of the Purāṇas, according to which the Sūta and the Māgadha sprang into existence by a kind of spontaneous generation out of Prajāpati's yajña held in honour of the "First of Consecrated Monarchs", marks them out as specially designed for the one purpose of singing the praises and acting as the bardic repositories of the annals and chronicles of the imperial house which Pṛthu founded. That this dedication of the Sūta and Māgadha to the profession of royal bards was

<sup>35</sup> In the text of the Taittirīyā Saṃhitā, the word is ग्रहन्त्याय (तमो सुताय ग्रहन्त्याय, IV 5. 2). In the Vājasaneyī Saṃhitā (XVI 18), the text has read, from before the days of the commentators, as ग्रहन्त्य which being derived (how it is not explained) from ग्रहन्ति is said to mean 'not-killing.' ग्रहन्त्ये is certainly nearer to ग्रहन्त्याय than to ग्रहन्ति । The "Sūta" is made to fit by being taken to mean सार्थि, "charioteer." The Taittirīyā Saṃhitā reading is obviously the correct one. The Vājasaneyī text equally obviously has got mutilated. This is the view apparently taken by Eggeling of the latter text (S. B. E. XLIII 151). The Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā reading ग्रहन्त्याय must also be erroneous, if it be not a permissible variation of ग्रहन्त्याय, which ग्रहन्त्ये also may well be,

not due to the caprice of the originator of the legend is made clear by the practice followed with but few exceptions in the extant Puranas (for all that they have been so completely Brahmanised) of making them issue from the lips of a Paurāņist Sauti, as though no one who was not a Sūta could be the accredited narrator of a Purāna and as though no Purana could claim to be accepted as the right kind of stuff if it did not find a Suta as its narrator. It is remarkable that the earliest and the greatest of the extant Purana books, the Mahabharata, was not content with borrowing the seal and sign-manual of the "Redactor" of the Vedas as sufficient in themselves for giving itself canonical authority. The narrative had though come (even further to be contrived to . lips of the Pauranist Sauti third hand) from the Ugraśravas, the son of Lomaharsana. A Purāna, whatever other basis of authority it might claim to possess, was somehow not felt to be quite in order unless it happened to be narrated by a Sūta by caste. It looks as though the Sūtas stood to Purāṇas in about the same relation in which the Brahmans stood to Vedas.

And yet, does any one with an iota of historical sense doubt for a moment that the authors of the Mahābhārata were neither the saint Kṛṣṇa-Dvaipāyana Vyāsa nor the Sūta Ugraśravas, but Brāhman protagonists of the varṇa-āśrama cult, after the same had fully matured, masquerading from behind these names? Does anybody to-day really imagine that Lomaharṣaṇa or Romaharṣaṇa, the Sūta pupil of Dvaipāyana, and not a nameless Brāhman of a very late age was the real author of the Vāyu Purāṇa? What then may be the reason behind the solemn pretence which is found maintained in Purāṇa after Purāṇa that the A10.

work is genuine Sūta-told stuff and copyrighted as such 36?

A version of the Vainya Pṛthu legend occurs in the Mahābhārata itself; and the Mahābhārata, as has been seen, exhibits its loyalty to the practice alluded to in its very opening lines. The incongruity from the varṇa-āśrama point of view of making the Niṣāda ancestor of Mlechchha hill-tribes come out of the body of a Vedic Aryan Rājarṣi (however evil-minded he might have been, the same body immediately afterwards yielding up Pṛthu, though the Niṣāda somehow misses being styled a Vainya, like Pṛthu), as also the incongruity (from the fully caste-conscious orthodox Brāhman point of view of the age of the Epics) of making a yajña performed by the Āngirasas in collaboration with the chief of the Vedic Pantheon, Prajāpati himself, <sup>37</sup> give birth to two caste-groups whom the Brāhman schematists do not know how to place in a perfectly conceived caste-

<sup>36</sup> This pretence is not observed in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa. The Viṣṇu Purāṇa which is expressly fathered on Parāṣara appears at first sight to be bent on defying it, for the opening chapter solemnly affirms Parāṣara (and not his son Vyāṣa) to have been the person appointed to be पुराम्बाहिताकता. Nevertheless, in Part III Ch. 6, it reproduces verbatim the generally accepted Purāṇa account of Dvaipāyana Vyāṣa's authorship of the Purāṇa-Saṃhitā and of his having made it over for keeping and teaching to his famous Sūta pupil Romaharṣaṇa. It also reproduces with the same fidelity the yājūic origination of the Sūta and the Māgadha for the (apparently pre-appointed) purpose of chronicling the virtues and glories of the Royal house of Vainya-Pṛthu. The mistake is not repeated in the later Purāṇas (the Bhāgabata, the Vṛhannāradīya, the Kalkī must all be later in date) which quietly revert to the old practice of putting forward an eponymous Sūta narrator who is either Lomaharṣaṇa himself or his son Ugraṣravas.

<sup>37</sup> Vāya Pur. 62. 133 37. As already pointed out, Prajāpati himself, by origin, was a Daiva Vrātya who however had for logical reasons to be absorbed into the Vedic Pantheon, with that rank, without question or ceremony. See pp. 64-65, supra.

scheme, however, pass unnoticed by the Brāhman authors of the Great Epic, who take them over from old traditions, as found, without doubt or question. They take equally for granted the fact, also recorded without question in the Mahābhārata, that the Sūtas and Māgadhas follow other professions besides that of royal bards. Some of these incongruities do however strike the mind of the Brāhman author of the Vāyu Purāṇa with such force that he feels compelled to search for explanations; and the explanations he furnishes are based upon such a careful and conscientious weighing of all available data that I can scarcely help wishing that the authors of the Vedic Index had, somehow, him as a collaborator when they prepared their Note on the "Sūta".

The explanations offered by the author of the Vāyu Purāṇa will be found in chapters 1 and 62 of that Book. He gives full faith to the legend (as indeed he could not help doing, considering the age in which he wrote his explanations) and accepts the spontaneous generation of the Sūta and Māgadha from out of the च्यामाण्ड of the yajña as a fact, and also that the divinely appointed hereditary calling of the Sūta (and of course also of the Māgadha) was that of minstrel-chronicler of the sagas of the houses of the King and of the nobility:

स्वधम्मं एव स्तस्य सिद्धं धः पुरातनेः । देवतानामृषीयाञ्च राज्ञां चामिततेजसाम् ॥ वंशानां धारणं कार्य्यं श्रुतानाञ्च महात्मनाम् । इतिहासपुराणेषु दिष्टा ये ब्रह्मवादिभिः ॥ Vāyu Pur. 1. 31-32%

3. This description, it will be noted, does not confine the Sūta's functions to the chronicling of the family histories of the Kings and nobles only. It takes in the chronicling of similar histories of the Devas, Rsis, and eminent people. The work assigned to them by the legend expands under Brāhmanic influence, as will be presently shown.



But unlike the authors of the Note in the Vedic Index, he cannot persuade himself to close his eyes on what must have been patent facts in his days that the Sūtas followed a number of inferior professions, such as those of soldiers, drivers of horses, elephants and chariots, and finally of healers of bodily ills; and he faithfully records that these are his inferior callings ( आपद्माः in Paurāṇic parlance).

But what exactly was his view of the principal dharma of the Sūta, as chronicler-bard-poet? Here again, being an orthodox Brāhmaṇ of the age to which he belonged, and a Paurāṇist to boot, he is met by difficulties which need not trouble authors of Vedic or Paurāṇic Indexes (or investigators of any kind into the literature of the Vedas and Purāṇas) of our day. Brāhmaṇ schematists claiming almost quasi-canonical authority had already fixed the Sūta's place in their caste-scheme as a aution of schematic, it is authoritatively laid down:

### ज्ञत्रियाद्विप्रकन्यायां सूतो भवति जातितः । वैश्यान्मागघ वैदेहौ राजविष्राङ्गना छतौ ॥

as it has also been laid down (X 8) of the Niṣāda that he was the वर्गसंकर issue of an अनुताम union, viz, from a Sūdra woman through procreation by a Brāhmaṇ father. This was hard, very hard indeed, to reconcile with the origins assigned to the Sūta the Māgadha and the Niṣāda in the legend. But our author did not lack either example in dealing with a difficulty of this kind, or courage if it was he who invented the explanation that is given in verse 84 of the 1st Chapter of the Purāṇa. At the yajña held in honour of Prthu, he says:—

ऐन्द्रेश हविषा तत्र हविः एकं वृहस्पतेः । जुहावेन्द्राय देवाय ततः सुतो व्यजायत ॥

## शिष्यहव्येन यत्पृक्तमभिभूतं गुरोईविः । स्रधरोत्तरचारेगा जज्ञे तहर्गा वैकृतम् ॥

Vāyu Pur. 62. 138-139; also 1. 35-36.

There you are! In the pot placed over the sacrificial fire, the oblation meant for Indra and that meant for Vrhaspati somehow got mixed. So the Sūta, born though he never was from human parents of any kind or caste, sprang into existence as a atitate! It is just the kind of explanation which, thick as leaves in Vallombrosa, choke the Brāhmaṇa books. I feel disposed to acquit the author of the Vāyu Purāṇa of all responsibility for originating this explanation. The Purāṇas' style of invention is of a different and more concrete order. This particular explanation must have taken shape in the heyday of the Brāhmaṇa literature.

But what was the nature of the Sūta's principal dharma? Was it Brāhmaṇya-dharma, Kṣātra-dharma or Vaiṣya-dharma? The author notes, for all that the Sūta was varṇa-sankara of pratitoma origin according to the theorists, that his principal dharma was in fact and reality and was generally accepted to be that of a Brāhmaṇ's.

यच ज्ञतात् समभवद् बाह्यग्यं हीनयोनितः। सृतः पूर्वेग् साधम्म्यात्तु त्यधम्मां प्रकीर्त्तितः॥ मध्यमो द्योष सृतस्य धम्मः ज्ञत्रोपजीवनम्। रथनागाश्वचरितं जघन्यञ्च चिकित्सितम्॥

Vāyu Pur. 62. 140-141.

The author does undoubtedly wobble in his explanation. The बाह्मएय of the Sūta is established, but by giving the वर्गवेकृत an अनुलोम colouring. The बाह्मएय of the Sūta must have been plainly undeniable to have justified such a course. And, it stood to reason also that Lomaharṣaṇa

(the Sūta eponymous narrator of the Vāyu Purāna itself) would not have been specially selected by Kṛṣṇa-Dwaipāyana as the pupil to whom the Purāna Veda (Vāvu Pur. 1. 17) was to be imparted for preservation and instruction, if he Lomahargana had not, in the estimation of that "repository of scriptural knowledge and mores". been as good as a Brāhman. But the principal datum which would have clinched the argument in favour of the Sūta's Brāhman-hood, this author is prevented from adducing by a strange irony of fate. Lomaharsana, the eponymous author of the Vayu Purana, cannot obviously be made to state (what is reported in a number of the other Puranas whereof Lomaharsana is not the putative narrator<sup>39</sup>) that Baladeva, the irascible brother of Krsna Mādhava had to do penance for brahmahatyā for doing to death this very Lomahargana.

Lomaharṣaṇa, the report runs, was narrating the Purāṇas before an assembly of Rṣis (like the one depicted with singular dramatic felicity and circumstantiality in the opening chapter of the Mahābhārata), when Baladeva arrived upon the scene. The assembled Rṣis rose up to do honour to

<sup>39</sup> Of the other extant Purāṇas of which the putative narrator is Lomaharṣaṇa, one is the Vṛhannāradīya in which it is amusing to note that the roles of teacher and pupil assigned in the Chhāndogya Upaniṣṇd (VI.7) in the relation between the two interlocutors, Sanatkumāra and Nārada, are reversed. In the first Adhyāya, Lomaharṣaṇa is spoken of as being engaged in performing many yajñas and as having learned all the Sāstras from Veda Vyāsa, as though he were Brāhmaṇ born. The author of the Vāya Purāṇa, inspite of his obvious desire to do justice to the Sūta, had not the courage to go so far. He felt constrained in verse 33 of Ch. 1 to put the following reservation in Lomaharṣaṇa's own mouth: विह वेदेववाकार: कियत स्तस्य द्रयत The Lomaharṣaṇa Baladeva episode is recounted in a number of Purāṇas of which for that very reason he could not be made the putative spokesman; the Mārkaṇḍeya (Ch. 6), the Bhāgabata (Ch. 10. 78) and the Kalkī (Ch. 3. 13-20) for instance.

the redoubtable Kṣatriya warrior noble. But Lomaharṣaṇa was such a stickler for the dignity of his calling that he did not even leave his seat! Enraged at this exhibition of stiff-necked perversity on the part of a Sūta, the Kṣatriya (a blue-blooded Varangian, if my surmises are correct, and not a Vrātya by descent) killed him then and there.

What a fascinating fossil deposit to charm the heart of a collector!

Lomaharṣaṇa was not stiff-necked. In retaining his seat and pose he was appropriately maintaining the dignity of his calling, which is acknowledged and conceded in the deference the Sūta narrator of the Purāṇas has invariably had accorded to him by his Ḥṣi audience in descriptions of scenes like the above left in the Mahābhārata and other works of undoubtedly Brāhmaṇ authorship, and in the honorific adjectives which were applied to the first-born Sūta and Māgadha in the Brāhmaṇised Purāṇa narratives of their birth at Pṛthu's yajña (the Sūta is महामित, the Māgadha is प्राज्ञ)

The Baladeva-Lomaharsana episode which the Vāyu Purāna is precluded from noticing takes note of the fact of the Sūta being चहन्त्य (inviolable) and the reason therefor being his बाह्मप्य। The reason of the बाह्मप्य, again, simply is that when caste entered into the Aryan scheme of things, the Sūta started (along with the Māgadha) as a Brāhman and standing on exactly the same level as the Aryan Brāhmans. The writers of the Note on Sūta in the Vedic Index have gone entirely wrong in tracing his inviolability to his heraldic functions. The Sūta, like the "herald" of the European feudal civilization, did keep records of names and pedigrees, but he never bore messages between prince and prince as the European "herald" did. This was the function of the Dūta, and not of the Sūta. The Dūta, according to Nītiśāstra books,

had to be an educated person and an eloquent speaker (वका) he did not have to carry loads of saga-stuff in his cranium to discharge his functions of a Dūta, at least in Indo-Aryan India.

In Indo-Aryan India, the **অহ-** attribute belonged to the members of two professions, the Priest's and the Dūta's, though, because the qualifications needed for a Dūta would be most readily discovered in a person who had been brought up as a priest, the two inviolabilities would often be found combined in one and the same person.

The Sata was inviolable not because he was a "bard-herald," but because he was a "bard-priest." He was by profession not a herald in the sense in which the authors of the Note in the Vedic Index understand the term for the purpose of deriving his inviolability therefrom.

In the Dispensation of the Eka-Vratya, before the Great Vrātyastoma-Rājasūya ceremony, the Sūtas and Magadhas were the bard-priests of Vratya-land chronicling sagas and legends and officiating as priests as well at the Rajakarmanis of the King and the nobility and also at the grhya rites of the common people. I already indicated what an overwhelmingly large part sorceries and incantations played at these ceremonies. The Brāhmans in Aryan land also were accustomed to such practices though in lesser degrees. The practice of these Atharvanic ceremonies as a whole however hardly afforded room for the priests thereof developing abstract thinking and acuteness of intelligence, whereas the Aryan ritualistic mantras and practices had a great educative influence in this direction. But superficially at least the difference would not be noticeable, at any rate by the first observing Aryan Brāhmans.

Besides, it will be remembered that at the date of the Great Stoma, the Brāhmans were not yet caste-conscious

or exclusive. The Stoma, as I have taken pains to stress, did not convert any individual Non-Aryan into any specific Brāhmaṇic caste; it drew the whole population towards whom the Great Vrātya stood as grhapati into the Aryan communion, caste and all, caste having been indissociably appurtenant to this Great Household; so that, to put the facts that happened in language which would describe them with complete exactitude, we should say, it was the Rājanya caste of Vrātya land which drew into itself and absorbed the Aryan Kṣatriyas, and not that the Aryan Kṣatriyas admitted into their ranks and absorbed the Eastern Rājanyas; and so again it was the Vrātya Brāhmaṇ caste of Sūtas and Māgadhas which absorbed within itself the Aryan visiting Brāhmaṇs.

But the movement, as I have said, was not confined to Vrātya land. It caught on and spread all over the Aryan lands, passing over territories which must have been there. which were neither fully Aryanised nor fully Vrātya. The synthetic amalgamating movement, thus started, appeared to have had a momentum of its own which took a long time to work itself out. It is finely reflected, as regards the Rajanya class, in the heroic attempts made in the Harivamsa, the Vayu and some other Puranas to exhibit the members of all the ruling houses of northern India, of every caste origin, as branches of one and the same genealogical tree, the house of Karna, the Sūta, being made as much a part of it as even Ekalavya's, the redoubtable Nisada chieftain's. Therefore the Pauranists' occasional plaint that many people not deserving the rank had been slipping into the Ksatriya caste was not without foundation, even though it was their own essays in genealogical eclecticism that must have been partly at any rate responsible for such happenings. The Aryan Brāhmans of the West must have been drawn into the Eastern A11.



Vrātya Brāhman caste-group in a similar manner and at the same time.

That the names of the premier castes (Brāhman, Kṣatriya, Rājanya) are of Aryan origin does not militate against the soundness of my views; for the literature in which the results of this synthesis and amalgamation came to be recorded being entirely Brāhman-controlled and expressed in their language (and not in some other that might possibly have been affected by the Vrātyas), it was but natural that, in that literature, the Brāhmanic designations should prevail over the non-Brāhmanic. Exactly the same thing happened, as we saw, when the Great Vrātya Deities personating respectively the Creator, the Preserver and the Destroyer of the Universe were absorbed into the Vedic Patheon. They received Aryan designations.

Undoubtedly caste-consciousness, indigenous in Vrātya land, deepened with the advent of the Aryan Brāhman. Caste-distinctions became more rigid under his guiding hand. The Brāhmans would not be human if they did not seize the chance which the existence in Vrātya land of castes afforded them of finally establishing their intellectual and moral precedence over the other orders, for the sake of which they had even faced expulsion and exile from the lands of their birth. But this rigidity did not arrive all at once.

Thus the immediate result of the Aryanisation of Vrātya land was the amalgamation of the Aryan Brāhmaṇs and the Sūtas and Māgadhas into one single caste, namely that of "Brāhmaṇs". Whether the attribute of "inviolability" was derived from the Aryan or the Non-Aryan source is of no consequence. It is enough that the Sūtas became ahantya because they started with being Brāhmaṇs.

But it was not long before the sheep in this amalgamated Brāhman caste began to smell out the goats and seek dissociation from the latter. Professional rivalry was added to the other circumstances to widen the breach.

As priests, the Sūtas and Māgadhas, lacking the education and intellectual and other dicipline which the former underwent during the period of their brahmacharya, stood no comparison whatever with the Aryan Brāhmaṇs. Their displacement from their office in the households of the King and the Rājanyas would follow almost immediately upon the formal accession of the Rājanyas into Aryanism. The richer Vaisya castes in the city would follow the example of the Rājanyas. Here the Sūtas and the Māgadhas would sink into the position of court-ministrels and noblemen's toadies, a position not at all calculated to enhance the respect in which they were held.

The Arvan Brahmans who displaced them were not, on their part, proselytizers after the fashion of some brotherhoods of modern Christian missionaries. kept the Rājakarmāni but improved and "rishified" them. making them more interesting and artistic in the process. It is clear from the Atharva Veda texts that they did not even despise the superstitions of the common people: they took these up too and "rishified" them. Bloomfield's happy characterisation of the Brahman's art will bear a second repetition: "The Atharva Veda with its popular beliefs poses outwardly in the same attitude of dignity as the RgVeda with the soma-rites; i.e. Brahmanical priests handle charm and hocus pocus as religion, not as superstition. As a natural consequence, the Vedic Pantheon is brought down and made to participate in the common people's customs and superstitions".

The extent of the displacement of the Sutas and the

Māgadhas from their business as officiating priests to the Rājanyas as well as to the common people and the expedition with which the operation had been consummated will be apparent once it is realised that the Atharva-Veda was composed mainly to provide and serve for a Complete Priests' Manual for Aryan Brāhman priests officiating as such within Vrātya land and for the entire population thereof (the whole population having got Aryanised en bloc), and not for this or that person or group of persons as might be supposed. This is a fundamental position in my thesis towards which I have now been working for some time; and I am very anxious indeed that this should be specially borne in mind as such by the reader who has had the patience to follow me thus far.

But of course, as will be fully explained later on, it was and was bound to be something more than an Atharvan priest-practitioner's vade mecum. It was bound to contain a fair quantity of material of purely Vedic Aryan origin for personal use, or for use or adaptation for use in the service of their yajmans, specially if they happened to be of the spell and incantation variety. This in fact it does; and the purely Aryan origin is, in the case of some of them, easily detected by the presence of patent "incongruities" of the kind I have been seizing for use in my thesis. (One of these I shall have occasion almost immediately to treat in the way I have been treating other "incongruities"). It would contain some of the things the Brahman priests have learned from the King and their other Rajanya yajmans at theological and cosmogonic soirees which must have been an event of constant occurrence in Atharva land. In what spirit both the Brāhmans and the Rājanyas entered into the pursuit of the Upanisadic science is finely reflected in the accounts

of religious conferences held in Janaka's Court left in the Vṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad and records of other less formal and spectacular proceedings to be found in that and the other Āraṇyakas. Thus it is that the Atharva Veda has come to include brahmodya and other theosophical and cosmogonical hymns of a very superior order contrasting strangely with the hocus pocus of spells and curses which seem almost to be the staple of that Veda. And then there would also be original poetic compositions made by the Brāhmaṇs stirred by inspiration derived from what they were observing and experiencing in this strange and unfamiliar country. Two examples, the Vratya Book and the Bhauma Sūkta, I have already largely drawn upon for the purposes of my thesis.

European scholars who have studied this Veda as no Indian scholar has done stand completely puzzled and befogged by (i) the contrast the contents of this Veda present to those of the three others, (ii) the heterogeneous character of its contents, ranging from the extremes of the sublime to abysmal depths of the childish ridiculous, from ideal loving-kindness to black obscenities and spit-fire imprecations, (iii) the large amount of space allotted to the Rājakarmāṇi, (iv) the excessive prevalence of spells and curses running through the whole gamut of the bhaisajyāni, the āyusyāņi, the ābhichārikāņi the krtapratistrīkarmāni, the the paustikāni prāyaśchittāni, (v) the glorification of the King and his priest (Purohit) and of the Brahmans in general, carried to disproportionate lengths. But their puzzlement will be dissipated, if they will but fix their minds on the place, the occasion, the manner, the purpose, and the agency by which the collection, as I have suggested, came to be made. In the very incongruities which puzzle them I have indeed found the greatest support for my thesis as above outlined.

But to return to the Sūta and the Māgadha.

The Sūtas of the Anūpadeśa appear from all accounts to have proved themselves more adaptable to the altered situation than their fellow bard-priests from Magadha. They took to soldiering, driving chariots, elephants, and horses, and even attended to men's physical ailments as a profession. By their ability and resourcefulness they attained the rank of grāmaṇī or equerry and that with such frequency as to be generally ranked as vīra, ratnin or rājakṛt. The Sūta even raises himself exceptionally, as was the case with Karṇa, to the rank of a King (governor really). 40 From the accounts in the Śrauta literature it seems clear that the Brāhmaṇs did not regard the Sūtas with excessive hatred, possibly because they had ceased to be serious professional rivals, having as a class apparently abandoned priesthood for those other occupations.

It was otherwise however with the once पाञ्च Māgadha. It was he who came to be expressly designated as a "brahmabandhu", i.e., "a spurious or degraded Brāhmaņ". Out in the villages, he must still have continued to officiate as ग्रामयाजी or प्रायाज्ञिय; and even to-day, he may be recognised as a survival in the bhāts and agradānīs. To have merited the opprobrium in which his name is enshrined in Brāhmaṇic literature, it looks as if these mountebanks of Māgadhas had contested every inch of the ground they

thought Karna or Drona to have been. If they were "Kings" of Anga and North Panchala, how could they, as they appeared to be, always in attendance in the Kuru Court? Were they really some kind of governors under the Kuru King, and did they in that case govern by deputy? Even territorial sovereigns like Jarasandha (an annexationist by policy) could not quite dispense with semi-sovereign feudal agencies for controlling outlying areas. A thoroughly centralised autocracy requires an organised bureaucracy for its maintenance, and this does not grow up all at once. They very probably were Kuru feudal vassals.

were called upon to vacate in favour of the Brāhmans. They stuck round the Vrātya and the Rājanyas as Court buffoons and ministers perhaps of their vices, the lewd associates of gamblers, dancers, singers and harlots, all the riff-raff parasite crew that is usually to be found in the entourage of an Eastern King or Nobleman who happens also to be a man of pleasure. But a brahmabandhu, the Māgadha still remained, a name truly of evil repute, but reminiscent nonetheless of his former state from which he was fallen. But, oh, what a fall it was!

It has to be clearly understood and acknowledged however that this fall was still of the future when Paryāya 2 of the Vrātya Book (AV XV. 2) came to be composed. As he who runs may read, the references to him in that Book were not intended to disparage him, any more than the references to the Pumśchalī were intended to disparage her; he had not fallen as low as he did in later times, Bloomfield's assumption to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Panchavimsa Brāhmaṇa account of the Conversion Vrātyastoma does not provide for the Māgadha being in attendance at the ceremony to take over, with the cast-off equipments of the Vrātyas, the sins of their unregenerate state. It is the Sūtra doctors (Lātyāyana, Kātyāyana) who tow him in for that degrading service (Lātyā Śr. S. VIII 6. 28; Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4. 22). Let these equipments, say they, go to the still unconverted Vrātyas or to the Māgadhadesīyāyā brahmabandhu41 (मागवदेशीयाय बहावन्यवे). "This latter expression," comments Weber, "is only explicable if we assume

What the term brahmabandhu conveyed in the minds of those who used them is clearly brought out in the context of verse 1 of Khanda 1 of the Chhāndogya Upanisad. The description applies to Brāhmans who have not made themselves conversant in youth with Vedic knowledge and Vedic mores by living for the requisite number of years in the houses of Brāhman preceptors as brahmachāri Vedio

that Buddhism, with its anti-Brāhmaṇical tendencies was at the time flourishing in Magadha, and the absence of any such allusion in the Pañchaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa is significant as to the time which elapsed between this work and the Sūtra of Lātyāyana" (Weber, History of Indian Literature, p. 79).

Here indeed is speculation degenerating into the flimsiest inconsequentialities. European scholars as a rule somehow cannot get Buddhism off their brains. The moment I find them starting the Buddhistic hare for an explanation, I become suspicious. Weber's speculations on the Vrātya-Māgadha-Pumśchalī association, at pp. 111-112 of the same book, are even more incomprehensibly erratic.

students. The Sutas and Magadhas would from the outset be exactly this kind of Brahmans; and it is in the highest degree unlikely that they, at any time after their pro forma entry into the Aryan communion. as a body adopted the Aryan grhya practices, amongst which living the life of a brahmachari Vedic student during non-age was regarded as of prime importance, the text of PB XVII 1.2 actually specifying न हि ब्रह्मचर्य चरन्ति as one of the marks of Vrātyas. The parties to the conversation in the course which the term is used were the Brahman Uddālaka Āruņi and his son Svetaketu, the same Svetaketu who later applies the term "rajanyabandhu" disparagingly to describe the renowned Ksatriya Upanisad doctor Pravahana Jaibali. Svetaketu no doubt bore a grudge against Pravahana who had grievously wounded his vanity for scholarship. But the term as applied to him by Svetaketu was not mere abuse. I have supposed Pravahana to have been of Vratya Rajanya ancestry. The pro forma conversion of his ancestor to Aryanism could scarcely be conceived to have made him or his descendants after him strict achara-observing dvija Ksatriyas. Pravahana obviously was no srotriya and made no pretence to being one. There is a passage in the Vrhadaranyaka account of the same incident which suggests that Upanisadic free-thinking and teaching ran in the family to which Pravahana belonged, and Gautama Uddalaka was by no means the first Brahman who had come to this family of Vratya rajanyabandhus to be initiated in the mysteries of the Vedanta: (Chhandog, Up. V 3; Vrhadāranyaka, Up. VI 2. 8).

The translation of मार्गघदेशीयाय बहावन्थवे has presented difficulties to commentators. I offer mine. It is: "to the spurious Brāhman such as the Māgadha and his like" (the word is मागव and not मगध, which requires giving देशीय a sense which does not import "country": देशीय is the तिद्धत affix signifying ईपद्समाप्ति, "like, but not completely," so that the Sūtra scholiasts in question must be understood to have been drawing into the net, as logically they were bound to do, not the Magadha brahmabandhu alone, but others like him besides, such as the Sūtas and the Videhas or such of them at least as were still sticking on to priestly work of sorts. Was indeed a further degradation deliberately intended when these three were later classified as वर्णासंकरs of प्रतिलोम origin whilst the Nisada was in a manner placed above them by being ranked as a वर्षासंकर of श्रनुलोम origin? I doubt if fanatic schematists ever allow themselves to be moved by sentiment. I doubt, too, if professional rivalry alone would be enough to drive the one amongst the rivals who happened to have control over the literature to such extremely mean lengths. anything is possible to the envenomed Brahmanism of the type which has found expression in the extant Manu Samhitā (see Manu, Book X).

Baudhāyana too omits reference to the Māgadha or to any brahmabandhu in his account of the Conversion Vrātyastoma. Quite needlessly and unintelligently however, he foists this creature (or at least the shadow of him) on the stoma for the निन्दावकीर्यांड, the one that was meant for Aryans fallen from grace through flagrant defiance of the Aryan mores. Equally unintelligently he drags in the Puṃśchalī also (or her shadow, is it?). Lapses from Aryan proprieties could not have been rare by any means in Aryan lands wherever situated, human nature being what it always has been. Think of the trouble and A12.

expense that would have to be incurred if a brahmabandhu Magadha had to be paid passage fare and fees every time a ceremony like this had to be performed in Saurāstra or Śūrasena or in the Bāhlika country! But do not imagine that Baudhāyana's madness was without method altogether. Far from it. He, the Magadha. and she, the Pumschalū, had to be brahmabandhu all right, but they need not necessarily have been Magadha and Pumschalū in fact. All that was necessary was that the words (curses and obscenities?) which these, if genuine, would have ejaculated should be uttered by individuals personating the one and the other! Commentators may quarrel over the grammar of this passage: whatever the issue of this quarrel, it will not affect my position in the slightest degree. My position is (and I do not see how that position can on the materials presented be in any way shaken) that this participation in the ceremony (in the degrading role assigned to him) of the brahmabandhu Māgadha is an invention of the commentators to make the ceremony fit in with a totally erroneous and extraordinarily inept reading of the 2nd Paryaya of the Atharva Veda. It was an absurd attempt to improve upon the Panchavimsa Brahmana text by finding suitable places and functions in the ceremony for the Magadha and the Pumschali, simply because these names happened to be mentioned in the AV texts in close juxtaposition with the vinatha, usnīsa and other equipments of the Vrātya grhapati. Latyayana exhibits some slight trace of rationality by interpolating the Magadha into the Conversion stoma, though his rationality too is rationality instinct with malice, since he too is not content with introducing any Magadha; it must be a brahmabandhu Māgadha. But Baudhāyana's foisting of him, with the Pumschali thrown in, on the excommunicate-regeneration stoma is downright dementia.

What I have said will be found to dispose of similar references in the other Sūtra works.<sup>42</sup> The even more disgusting role assigned to the Māgadha in the Mahāvrata ceremony in the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa (II 404, copied in the Āpastamba Śr. S. XXI 17. 19), I cannot but regard as an equally ill-natured invention.

I do not for a moment doubt that once a provision like this was concocted, real or faked brahmabandhu Māgadha and brahmabandhu Puṃschalū (whatever this latter creature was) would be available in plenty to play the parts assigned to them in the Sūtras. But whether the parts assigned to them in the Vrālyastomas ever became, in fact and practice, a part of any ceremony of that name would depend for answer upon the further question whether the very ceremony of which it was (in the blundering fashion I have indicated) made a part by Sūtra scholiasts had or had not by then ceased to be practised. If the ceremony in question be supposed to have still remained extant, the credit for this particular development thereof must be assigned to the Sūtra scholiasts and not to the original organisers of the ceremony.

I am inclined to the opinion however that the Vrātyastomas as described in the PB had already ceased

<sup>42</sup> The treatment of the matter in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra does nevertheless need specific notice. Unlike the Lātyāyana Sūtras it takes in all the four stomas; and after doing that, prescribes the setting up of a grihapati in all cases by the following text: यो नृशंसतम स्यद् द्रव्यवत्तमो वानुवानतमो वा तस्य गाईपत्ये दीन्तरण ! by नृशंस the निन्दितान्नकीर्यो class is meant. Kātyāyana's confusion over the whole business is worse even than Baudhāyana's. The result for all the stomas is finally summed up thus: ब्रात्यस्तोमेनेष्ट्रा ब्रात्यसावाद्विरमेयु:; व्यवहार्यो सबन्ति The passage referring to the Māgadha: मागधदेशीयाय ब्रह्मबन्धवे दिन्निगाकाले ब्रात्यधनानि द्यु:। Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4. 3-7, 27-28.

be performed for either conversion or regeneration purposes and had in consequence ceased to be even properly understood in Baudhāyana's time. 43 otherwise should sthapatis be called in, as provided in Baudhāyana, for the non-conversion stomas? These were not designed or intended for operation on groups for which only a sthapati or grhapati would be needed. Worst of all was the joining on to the Savitripatita stomas of the mythological stories of groups of Devas (the Maruts, who are non-Vrātyas, with Visnu for sthapati, and the Daivya Vrātyas with Budha for sthapati) having performed these stomas. How they came, conceiveably, to be Savitripatitas, or imagined they did, I am unable to conjecture. Were the scholiasts then, after all, engaged in the purely intellectual pastime of "restoring" old and utterly dead institutions and, lacking historical sense, blundering in the process?

I notice here with satisfaction that Āpastamba, a Sūtra writer of the same school as Baudhāyana and later in date, does not lend any kind of countenance to the stumbling innovations of his predecessor (Āpast. Śr. S.XXII 5. 4-14), though he too, as I have had occasion to point out (p. 66 supra) cannot avoid touching up the old texts to make them agree with the mores and requirements of his times. By the time the very late Sānkhāyana Śrauta Sūtras came to be written, the ceremonies still going by the name of Vrātyastoma have apparently shed all their distinctive Vrātya features original or accreted; for the

<sup>43</sup> And even more so in Kātyāyana's, as the texts quoted in the previous note show. Kātyāyana's confusion is the more remarkable in that he expresses better than the others the feature which specially distinguishes the first from the other stomas, namely that it was a group ceremony; for he says, ब्रात्यागास्य ये सम्पाद्येयु स्ते प्रथमेन यजेरन; Kātyā Śr. S. XXII 4.4.

Vrālyastoma of this Sūtra work is seen to be just a common place svarga-kama ceremony (Sānkhā. Śr. S. XIV 69-72) in which according to the commentator (Varadattasuta Ānartīya) যা কলিবে র বিশিক্ষা অভিকাশী, that is, "any one of any of the three dvija varnas may perform it". The Sānkhāyana Vrālyastoma is also seen to admit of varieties, but these are determined by the particular local domicile in heaven of the gods whose company the worshipper is specially affecting.

But although I have been constrained to condemn and criticise some of the Baudhāyana texts from certain points of view, this must not be understood to detract from the extreme value I attach from the historical standpoint to all these texts without exception. The liberties which the Sūtra writers take with the Vrālyastoma texts and ceremonies, whether inept or sensible, are all seen to possess historical significance, besides being interesting in one way or another. The more "incongruities" the texts present, the more suggestive, as a rule, they turn out to be from the historical point of view.

I have already acknowledged the sterling value of his account of the Conversion  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$ . There is another piece of historical deposit in his  $Vr\bar{a}tyastoma$  texts which is equally valuable, illuminating and interesting.

In his treatment of the Sāvitrī patita stemas the Baudhāyana Sūtrākāra recounts an event which must have happened several generations back, whatever liberties he might have been taking with the facts as they had been handed down to his day by tradition in order to make them fit his purpose in recounting the story. He starts by observing that the stoma had been performed by the Maruts with Viṣṇu acting as sthapati, and the Daivya Vrātyas too had performed it with Budha as sthapati. The sons of

the Kuru-Brahmans too, he goes on, performed this stoma with Aupaditi Gaupālāyana Vaiāghrapadya as sthaputi. These Vrātyas (thus converted to Aryanism), he narrates, thereupon go to Panchala, disregarding the counsel to the contrary of their own parents who warned them that they would thereby be only inviting discourteous treatment from the Panchalas. The converts meet Keshino Dalvya, when he is seen performing the बहिस्पवमान (a soma ceremony) in which purifying act, with the zeal and self-importance of the neophyte, Gaupālāyana immediately asks to be allowed to participate. There happened to be present a local (apparently converted) Vrātva leader ( স্মন্তান ), one Gandharvāyaņa Baleya Āgnivesya, who enquires of Gaupālāyana who might be the people accompanying him. the Maruts", answers Gaupālāyana and, to the further question as to who was their sthapati, replies "I, Visnu"! Gandharvayana thereupon roundly tells him that that was the wrong stoma (परोज्ञावत) which they had been induced to go through by one who did not know his business. "It is you who are ignorant," retorts Gaupālāyana who now realises the wisdom of his father's advice: and in the excess of his rage forthwith pronounces on Gandharvayana the curse, namely, that his descendants will be a sinful lot. And so it happened, says Sūtra-kāra; for Gandharvāyaņa's family which till then was a most highly placed one (महाकुलं ह तत्पुरा) became thereafter a byword for sinfulness (पापायिता इव वभव) (Baudha Śr. S. XVIII 26).

The Sūtra-kāra thus appears to have cast his vote in favour of Gaupālāyana and against Gandharvāyaṇa. My previous comments on these texts if valid would however go to prove that Gaupālāyana as well as the Sūtrā-kāra were both hopelessly out of their reckoning, because the

Savitripatita stomas could have no application to Vratyas not yet formally taken into the Aryan communion44

The chief value of the story lies, however, in the proof it furnishes of the vigorous proselytising movement in favour of the Neo-Aryanism which, having sprung into existence and attained such signal success in the land of its birth, by this movement, rolled back the originally thin stream of Vedic Aryanism upon itself, transformed however now into a mighty flood through its capture by a river fed by many tributaries. Why nevertheless I designate the resulting system "Neo-Aryanism" (and not Neo-Non-Aryanism), I shall try to establish and justify in the sequel.

I cannot however regard the subject of Sūtas and Māgadhas and the evidence which the Vrātya's connection with them supplies for locating his habitat in the East as closed without noticing one other reference from the Atharva Veda, all the more so as the reference will enable me to point morals of other descriptions, which are equally close to my heart.

The 22nd Sūkta of Book V the AV has for its subjectmatter a charm against fever (takman). The Sūkta speaks of the country of the Mūjavants, the Mahāvṛṣas and the Bahlikas as the oku (home) of this fever. A great part of this charm consists in wishing the fever away to strange or disliked people and to strange and disliked regions; and

Would it be really wrong to suggest that the Baudhāyana Sūtrā-kūra's preference for the Sāvitrīpatita stoma over the Conversion stoma was not at all a blundering one, but deliberate, since the Sāvitrīpatita stoma brought in dakṣṇā to the Brāhmans, which the other stoma could not? If conversion of Non-Aryans should be supposed to have been still a living practice in this Sūtrākāra's time (I have doubted it), then the Brāhmans must by that time have gotten over their original squeamishness in the matter of contact with the converts' sins of their unregenerate state,

the regions which are thus specifically chosen to wish the fever away to include Anga and Magadha!

If the Atharva Veda as a whole was, as I have claimed for it, the vade mecum of Brāhman priests officiating in Vrātya land, how comes it then that Anga and Magadha, which I have repeatedly affirmed to be this land or the principal part of it at all events, should come to be treated in a Sūkta of this same Veda as a land of foreign devils to which fevers and other like plagues were most appropriately directed and consigned?

I must not be understood to have ever suggested that this same vade mecum of the Aryan priests officiating in Atharva land was prepared and composed once and for all, like Justinian's Pandects, under the very eyes of the Great Vrātya himself. It was the professional necessity of the Brāhman officiating priests which started this collection; and this collection drew into itself additions with the expansion and extension of the priests' operations. The great Vrātya or his Rājanya following had nothing to do with its actual composition or compilation. If any portion of it appears to be propaganda composed for the benefit of the King and the priestly order (a great deal of it is frankly the one or the other or both), it was the priestly order itself which was exclusively responsible for it. In a vade mecum prepared by priests whose original homes were in the Arvan West and who had their own welfare as much at heart as that of the indigenous population in their priestly charge, is it any wonder that there should be found quite a respectable number of mantras and other materials of purely Aryan origin, and that these (more than the local material which had perforce to undergo "rishification") would be likely to be deposited in exactly the shape in which they were brought down from the home-lands of the priests? There can be no doubt then that this takman

charm was one of these imported articles, and the chief reason why it was able to secure a place in the collection was no doubt its proved efficacy as a charm against kinds of fevers which prevailed in the Aryan as well as in the Vrātva countries. And, from the very natural fear of the charm suffering in point of efficacy through mutilation, it would also be proof against alterations which to sophisticated minds might appear politic or more advisable to make it fit into the new surroundings in which it got introduced. Thus whatever other efficacy a charm may have or not, it does, at all events, operate very effectively as a charm against its own mutilation. The takman-charm thus remains a standing example of a fossil deposit from Aryan land (originating at a time when the AV collection had not yet been made) carried into Atharva land by immigrant Aryan priests, and by them left embedded in the Atharvanic collection of hymns and mantras. So deposited, it is a piece of the most tell-tale "incongruity", for apart from what has been stated above it is instructive as showing the large part the spell-incantation-imprecation-sorcery motive played in the beliefs and opinions even of the Vedic Aryans, though, clearly again, in nothing like the degree or proportion of its prevalence amongst the indigenous population of Atharva land. I have taken pains to establish that the AV had to be a very mixed compilation from necessity, and was by no means the accidental jumble which European scholars have taken it for. It also had to be Aryan and Non-Aryan in different degrees and proportions. It had to contain inter alia a respectable body of purely Aryan materials which would retain their pristine purity, not standing in need of further "rishification", whilst the brunt of that transformatory process would necessarily fall on the proportionately very much larger Non-Aryan material. A13.

The paradoxical situation thus arises that it should be possible by the application of the "incongruity" test to isolate the purely Aryan element in the Atharva Veda more easily and satisfactorily than would be found feasible if a similar attempt was made to isolate and separate the purely Non-Aryan.

Another moral I wish to point before I leave this takman-charm Sūkta is that the health of Northern India (the longing for the "beautiful tracts" whereof, according to Weber, might have been one of the chief incentives of the Aryan mass-immigration which he imagines to have been the cause of the spread of "Aryan culture" over the continent) was not vastly different from what it is to-day. Fever, malarial and non-malarial, were of such prevalence in Aryan as well as in Vrātya land, that emigrants from the former to the latter land had to carry in their scarves (uttarīyas) fever-charms of proved efficacy in the same way as Government servants on tour in Bengal are found to-day carrying in their suit-cases quinine tablets and chlorodyne for analogous reasons. This fever-charm and other similar disease charms in the AV demonstrate this mass-emigration hypothesis to be in a very great measure a myth. Most of the Anupadesa was already populated and cultivated. The Videgha Māthava legend says so of this land, barring of course the marshland on the other side of the Sadanīrā, which too, though spoken of as "very uncultivated" could not thus have been entirely so, for Videgha Mathava, the adventurous trekker was no cultivator but a Rajanya and would not have chosen this country as his "abode" had it been unoccupied and unproductive. There is no reason for supposing that by making this country his "abode" he did anything but impose himself in the approved Rajanya style upon the local cultivating population for the purpose of maintaining peace (which perhaps only he and adventurers

like him initially came to disturb) and thereby earned his legitimate sastric sixth.

The concluding moral to draw from this fever-charm  $S\bar{u}kta$  is a warning to the reader not to take seriously the statement about certain remote North Western tracts being the oka (abode) of these fevers. The Mūjavants, the Mahāvṛṣas and the Bahlikas<sup>45</sup> were no more the oka of these fevers than were France and Italy the special breeding grounds of the "French disease" and the "Italian disease" respectively. What the Sūkta does conclusively demonstrate is that the fevers were natives, at least of the places from which they so much needed to be wished away.

<sup>45</sup> These areas are now parts of Kashmir and Jammu.

## Section X

## The Origin and Development of Indo-Aryan Literature. The "Smrti" and "Sruti" Stages of that Literature. The Redaction-Renascence.

I have already sufficiently indicated my thesis concerning this part of my writings, which is that the thin stream of Vedic Aryanism trickling eastward into Vrātya land mingled with the swelling Atharvanic river which itself was fed by many tributaries. The result was a mighty flood of Neo-Aryanism which taking a western direction spread over and submerged the Vedic Arvan settlements, seriously threatening and substantially affecting the Arvan purity of the institutions and practices within those settlements. This result is fully and faithfully reflected in the entire Srauta literature which is associated with the Tray i (the three Vedas other than the AV). So farreaching has been the influence of the Atharvan Collection upon this literature as a whole, that the phenomenon which we noticed in the composition of the Atharva Veda is in some measure repeated here too. From most of this literature, it will on the whole be easier to pick out and

<sup>1</sup> use these terms in special senses adapted from notions current in Indo-Aryan literature but in a way which removes them miles away from the words as currently understood. I found the derivative senses of these terms which I adopt so apt for expressing my views that I have risked a possible occasional misunderstanding which, however, my explanation of them several times repeated should prevent. The following hemistich from Väyu Puräna 59.39 hits off my meaning admirably:

isolate the purely or mainly Atharvanic contribution, than it will be to isolate the purely Aryan element from the Atharvanised Aryan material. Owing to special causes, however, some parts of the original Aryan material have been preserved intact.

But before I take up the examination of this literature for the purpose of arriving at a satisfactory account of its origin and growth, it is necessary that I should re-state in plain and precise language the whole of my thesis which has any bearing on this topic.

I affirm that two distinct varieties of culture met and mingled. One belonged to scattered, warring, priestridden (but by no means caste-ridden), factious (but racially and in sentiment homogeneous) tribal units, mobile because small and consisting of people whose principal sustenance was cattle and dairy products. Like the communities of Ancient Greece, they were not isolated from each other: and circumstances must have existed. the nature of which it is not easy to define with precision, which established some kind of community of language, sentiment and worship, of social customs and mores, so that it was even possible to describe the whole group of settlements by a single name, such as "the Pancha-Kṛsti" or "the Pancha-Manava" etc. The material outlook of these people was bounded within the narrowest of horizons.

Against this was an autocratic Eastern Vrātya Empire-State, of peace and plenty, consisting of a wealthy, leisured, highly cultured ruling race superimposed upon a very heterogeneous collection of castes and communities, more isolated in spirit (one from another) than were the warring tribal units in Aryan land, and sunk too, as a whole, in abject superstition, but not poor, because the land was naturally fertile and fruitful and otherwise

productive beyond the farthest limits of what could be conceived as attainable by prayers and adjurations for prosperity and wealth addressed by Vedic Aryan seers to their ever-friendly and powerful deities. Agriculture was the staple industry of the Empire, but commerce also flourished to such a degree that the State had to provide roads for mercantile traffic. It was a civilization as firmly rooted in the soil as the other was shifting and mobile<sup>47</sup>. The two met and mingled. In what way they first did so. I have taken pains not only to indicate but, as far as the data justify, to visualise in a concrete manner. By their mutual interaction (it will now be my aim to establish) they gave rise (i) to a culture of which the outstanding feature was the Varna-āśrama-dharma; and (ii) to the Indo-Aryan literature which, being in no small measure instrumental in producing that culture, will therefore receive priority of treatment.

47 The Aryans started as nomads living on their flocks and herds of domesticated animals whom they followed as these ranged for subsistence over grass-lands and steppes. They appear to have retained some of their ancestral habits, even after they had taken to see and alusa, a change which enables them to describe the people whom they later absorb into their settlements to strengthen their man-power as persons who not merely do not observe brahmacharya but also as people who do not practise kres or banijya, PB XVII 1. 2. (The original meanings of the very words and a law have nomadic significance). The people in the river valleys (Anupadesa) on the other hand started as agriculturists, subsisting on domesticated plants and cereals. It is the latter kind of community which all over the world has shown a special aptitude for supporting despotic monarchic rule almost as characteristically as the former have exhibited a marked tendency to kick over the traces whenever sought to be subjected to extraordinary discipline. When, besides, it is remembered that the Aryan settlements in Northern India, exceptionally, came to be priest-ridden, it is no matter for surprise that such communities should be apt to evolve a sacerdotal literature of the kind which finds expression in the three hieratic Samhitas. The other kind of society would equally readily produce bardic literature, such as we find forming Both came after, and in consequence of forces released by, this clash of competing cultures and polities.

By "Indo-Aryan literature" I wish to be understood to mean the earliest Indian literature which can be directly traced as the product of this clash of cultures. Of this literature, a fairly satisfactory working conspectus was found in the 6th Paryaya of the Vratya Book previously noticed. The enumeration, it may be remembered, consisted of the rchas, the samans, the yajur texts, the Atharva Veda, Itihāsa, Purāņa, Gāthās and Nārāśamsīs. This list may be taken to be an exhaustive enumeration of the literature at its date. Since then it proliferated in all directions. and so we cannot exclude from it the later literature which is genetically connected with it, namely, the Brahmanas (including the Upanisads) and the Srauta Sutras. The Grhya Sūtra Works also are blood-relatives slightly more distant. But the point which I desire particularly to stress from the very outset is that the Itihasas and Puranas are an integral part of this literature, how integral will appear later. For the present, it will be enough to point

the core of the Paranas. In the Prthu-Vainya legend I find indications of the Vedic Aryan settlers having to go to school to an Eastern Vrātya Emperor of the Anupadesa for perfecting their knowledge of krsi (agriculture) as an art, cow-keeping as accessory thereto, and industries of such an advanced order that the King has to undertake the construction of banikpatha. But backward in the arts and industries as the members of the Arvan visas undoubtedly were as compared with the population of the Vrātya East, on one point their superiority over the latter is placed beyond question by the PB text above cited (and other evidence of which there is an abundance in the Srauta literature), namely, in the matter of general education, and intellectuality associated with it. The members of the vis had to go through a course of education and discipline, the lines of which were quite well-defined, if they did not wish to sink to the state of a Vrātya. This is what is meant by the brahmacharya which the members of Aryan visas habitually practised and the Vrātya-gaņas! not at all. (See p. 17 and p. 87n Supra).

out that this literature itself uniformly freats Itihāsas and Purāṇas as parts and parcels of itself. (See, for instance, Vṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad IV 5. 11; also II 4. 10; and other references too numerous for special mention). That literature itself furnishes no ground for dissociating the Purāṇas from the Vedas, Brāhmanas and the Śrauta and Gṛhya Books as something foreign and excommunicate.

Scholars have recognised two well-marked stages in the evolution of this literature, which may be styled respectively the oral and the written stage. But one with a penchant for the palaeontology of history has to posit the existence of a still more rudimentary stage when the material of what came to be the oral literature still remained implicit in the daily observances of the people and had not yet been self-consciously conceived as things to be learned and taught and made the subject of discussion and comment, as much from the intellectual as from the practical point of view, and to be preserved intact for similar treatment by future generations of teachers, pupils and learned men.

To use notions familiar to every Indo-Aryan scholar and litterateur, the Srauta literature had not only an oral srauta stage preceding the stage when it come to be written down, it had a previous smārta stage when it existed in the practices of the people and was handed down from generation to generation through the recollection of interested participators or observers who had seen the practices followed or had heard the things spoken, which later they repeated from personal recollection. This smārta material becomes literature when it assumes śrauta character through a growing appreciation of the importance of its being handed down intact for purposes of learning and instruction. But I doubt very much if the incentive for this transformation ever arises otherwise than as a reaction to an impulse

imparted from outside, through the working solely (that is to say) of an inner necessity inherent in such practices. For, if the latter had been the case, then the records left of scriptural literature, the world over, would have been immensely more plentiful than we find them to be. But I do not wish to generalise. It is enough that, in this instance, the traditional smārta matter became transformed into oral śrauta literature through the working of such an external impulse. And this impulse, I shall proceed to show, itself came from the clash of cultures the effect of which on Indo-Aryan civilization, I am now seeking to trace and establish.

Nor, I conceive, does this *\$rauta* oral literature ordinarily transform itself into *\$rauta* written literature from a purely inner necessity inherent in the former. The transformation is dependent upon access in sufficient quantities to material for writing, supposing the lack of a suitable script has been previously overcome.

I wish the reader now to appreciate the special predicament of a people who have been compelled by circumstances to prolong the period during which the traditional matter has lingered in the śrauta oral medium (the second stage mentioned) for a considerable length of time. The patent unreliability of the oral medium for preserving this traditional matter intact would be keenly felt, and failing means to perpetuate them in writing, all possible accessory measures would be devised and adopted for the preservation in the oral medium of the integrity of those portions of the literature at least that had come to possess sacramental value. This is what admittedly happened to the Mantra and Yajña Saṃhitās.

But the continued successful application of measures for the preservation intact of literary material in the oral medium depends on so many uncertain factors that the A14.

preservation of any particular piece of material for generations, till it gets fixed in the written medium, must largely be a matter of an exceptional combination of lucky circumstances. Further these measures are no guarantees against opinion changing from time to time as to what is important and what not. Thus material which originally was considered of no importance would later assume such importance and what was once viewed as important would cease to be so regarded. For all these reasons, though I have the greatest respect for the industry that has been devoted to determining the ages of the texts by the application of linguistic and other like criteria (metre, for instance), and although where, by the application of such tests, a text has in fact been found to be old the necessary implication is that the material must be at least that much old, the tests are not conclusive that the material of even such a text is not much older; and the fact that the language of a text appears by these tests to be recent is by no means conclusive that the material itself is equally recent. Thus though the Puranas may be confidently said to have at no time acquired sacramental value, and there never was any incentive or attempt made to preserve them in the way there was as regards the Mantra literature, it cannot be said with equal confidence that the material they contain are all as recent in origin as when for the first time they took shape as written literature. On the face of them they contain much original traditional material handed down without substantial mutilation from very early times. I would therefore warn the younger generation of students of this literature against a blind, uncritical and virtually mechanical reliance on these tests. They have, in legal language, corroborative and not independent value.

Bearing these general consideration in mind, the hypothesis which gives every available piece of evidence

its due place and weight, and appears at the same time to account for every incongruity found and every difficulty experienced by scholars in understanding, explaining and orientating that evidence is the hypothesis that the first Collection of traditional (in my sense) Smarta material to be transformed (in my sense again) into oral śrauta literature was the material which later found written shape in the extant recensions of the Atharva Veda. The incentive came when the Aryan Brāhmans migrating into Atharva land took up professionally the priests' jobs hitherto performed by the Sūtas and the Māgadhas, and had to learn how these jobs were to be properly performed. The fact that the manner of doing these jobs had to be rationalised in the Brahmanic sense and "rishified" imparted to the Collection the flavour of literature even more than would have been the case if the Brahmans had taken to doing their priests' work in exactly the manner in which it used to be done by the Sūtas and the Māgadhas.

But it should be specially remarked that the Brahmans could not possibly have a very high regard for the work which they took up thus as a matter of business pure and simple. For some of the work they had to do, they not improbably felt patronising contempt. It may be safe to affirm therefore that although this Collection became śrauta ltterature in my sense, neither then nor for generations to follow (not until in fact the original purpose of the Collection had been utterly forgotten) would this literature in their eyes (not to speak of their fellow Brāhmans' in Aryan land) assume canonical authority and become śrauta in the technical sense. Nor, It may be affirmed with equal confidence, would the claim be immediately put forward of the Atharva Veda being the one and only Brahma Veda by the priests of this Veda, so long at least as they still remembered when and how

the Collection came to be made. Nor, equally, as the did not touch Of concern directly or indirectly the lives and practices of the Vedic Aryans, whether in the Atharvan or in the Aryan land, would it rouse any kind of protest or opposition from this or indeed from any quarter. That two such apparently contrasting bodies of mantras and practices such as are to be found in the Trays on the one hand and in the Atharva Veda on the other, should have existed side by side for such a long age without leaving any visible trace of intolerance felt by either against the other (evidence of actual conflict there is none) ceases, upon my hypothesis, to be the extraordinary thing it has appeared to be in the eyes of many European scholars.

It is also necessary to note here that the Atharvanic practices are not śrauta in another technical sense of the term. They are almost without exception grhya and not śrauta in character, so that in later times when the Atharva Veda had assumed canonicity and good form seemed to require that it should have Brahmanas and other Srauta appendices of the usual sort, after the manner of the other Samhitas, this could not be arranged for without wholesale borrowings from those others, and chiefly from the RgVeda. The Priests' Manual in demand was entirely for use at ceremonies to be performed in the interest of the yajmans, be they the common folk, the nobility or the Great King himself. They all partook of the nature of ceremonies which the priests would be called upon to perform in households of the yaimans. No demand for organising hieratic ceremonies of the Vaitanic order would naturally arise in Vrātva land till the immigrant Brāhmans became sufficiently numerous to be able to found independent schools and free-masonries of priests engaged fairly exclusively in hieratic ceremonies, and dependent therefore in the main

upon vṛttis provided by the King and rich men belonging to the laity. To put it in more famliar language, no provision was made for the holding and regulating of hieratic sattras and yajñas in the Atharva Veda because Colleges of Priests for whose use only they would have to be provided had not come into existence, and so far as the authors of the Manual could foresee, would not come into existence for long years to come.

A further very noticeable feature is that the grhya ritual matter contained in the Atharva Veda shows no correspondence worth speaking of with the grhya material in the Sūtras of that name. 48 The Atharva Veda seems to favour the out-of-the-way, the occasional, the optional, the bizarre: the normal, the usual and the ordinary being almost entirely disregarded; whilst the Grihya Books are seen to confine themselves (otherwise than very exceptionally) to the normal, the usual and the orderly aspects of the daily life of the typical householder: birth, confirmation, disciplehood, arrival in man's state, marriage, householdership, procreation of children, death and the ceremonies following thereon, and the more tinged they are with the lustre of piety, the fitter they appear to be for treatment in these Books. As Bloomfield happily puts it, the Grhya-Books concern themselves almost exclusively with the nityakarmāni, the Atharva Veda being on the other hand concerned with the naimittika and the kāmya.

The same author also remarks, with surprise, upon the absence in any marked degree of any special literary relationship between the Atharva Veda and the Grhya Books, occupied as both are in dealing with grhya (as opposed to śrauta) karmāṇi. This would indeed be a

<sup>48</sup> Whatever correspondence there is, is plainly the result of direct borrowing from the Atharva Veda.

matter for surprise if both were depicting aspects in the religious life of one and the same household. Upon such an assumption, one would be excused for imagining that the Atharva Veda and the Grhya Works, from the very start, entered into a solemn pact for dividing their fields of labour, so that neither would poach into the other party's preserve! Sūtra writers, amongst themselves, might overrun their own allotted field twenty times over, but as to overstepping this boundary and trespassing into the Ātharvaņic cabbage-patch, that not one of them must ever think of doing; and vice versa.

The fact however is that the Grhya Works and the AV were concerned with two entirely different households, each evolved in a habitat entirely distinct from that of the other. The Grhya Books had to do with the domesticities of the householder in the Vedic Aryan vis, the AV was concerned with those of the folk in Vrātya land. The ordered religious life following well-marked stages punctuated by special ceremonies, which was evolved in the compact and quite simple surroundings of the small Vedic Aryan settlements, did not exist in Atharva land, until it was at a much later age imported there from its native homes and took hold, under Bhrahmanic schooling, if indeed it ever did that to any appreciable extent. the date when the Atharva Veda was composed, the ordinary routine life of the householder in Vrātya land had (I am convinced from the material of the AV itself) no such religious significance as the routine life the Vedic Aryan householder. His whole religious outlook was occupied in fending off or overcoming the enemies known and unknown whom even the Great Vrātya's Peace could not forfend or prevent from lurking around in order to compass harm for him and his family, and in guarding against and expiating sins and contaminations from enas more fearful even than ghosts, devils, sorcerers, witches, snakes and man-eaters, all of which made such a perpetual nightmare of the ordinary life of the Vrātya citizen and householder. The grhya rites of the Atharva Veda made provisions for exactly this kind of life.

Fortunately the Atharvan Collection did not exhaust itself in providing against the superstitious fears only of the common folk. Scenes of ideal loving-kindness even get caught in stray suktas bearing chiefly on the Strikarmani, by way of exception. The Manual had to provide for ceremonies in the households of the King and the nobility as well; and these partook in large parts more of the Kāmyesti and Paustika (prosperity-securing) than of the ābhichārika (imprecatory and incantative) and the prāyāśchitta (expiatory) character. These evidently had potentialities for assuming hieratic vājnic proportions, as they in fact did in later times. But the cream of the Atharva Veda really lay outside and beyond a profusion of predominatingly spell material. It did absorb and contain, as it could not well help doing, a considerable quantity of brahmodya and like consmogonic and theosophic matter which the Brāhmans picked up (and so readily assimilated) from the pre-Upanisadic speculations of the Rajanyas.

And, as I have previously indicated, it was unavoidable that in a Collection made by Brāhmans for practical use, some originally Vedic Aryan material would get in, chiefly though not necessarily exclusively, of the order of the general contents of the Atharva Veda (of Kāmyesti or naimiltika significance, that is to say). Nor can these same Brāhmans be blamed if they included in the Collection matter glorifying the priests themselves and prayers and imprecations in the interest of the priests and sūktas for glorifying their Royal and other patrons (these, Bloomfield

notes do not go the length of the  $d\bar{a}nastutis$  and  $n\bar{a}r\bar{a}\hat{s}ams\bar{i}s$  of the Mantra literature). And as the authors of the Collection were by no means priests wholly or solely (of say the  $gr\bar{a}may\bar{a}jaka$  or  $p\bar{u}ga-y\bar{a}jaka$  variety), the Collection besides containing brahmodya and like matter of high spiritual significance, came inevitably to include some very fine poetical pieces. It is these no doubt which when the origin of the Collection had been forgotten proved chiefly instrumental in procuring for the Atharva Veda equal canonicity with the  $Tray\bar{i}$  (which at the date of the compilation it as a whole lacked) and special recognition as the Brahma Veda.

Altogether, the priestly compilers of this Veda had no cause then, nor have they cause now, to be ashamed of their handiwork.

And they did not take in the material as it stood. They moulded and rationalised it (from the Aryan Brāhmaṇic point of view, that is to say), impressing it indelibly with the stamp of their own genius, "rishifying" it, as Bloomfied has said.

So completely and thoroughly has this process been carried out that it is impossible now to isolate the original local materials as they stood before the Brāhmans took them in hand. Therefore it is not possible to say now with certainty whether in the result there was an improvement or the reverse. The best I can do is to quote in full Bloomfied's appraisement of it and leave it there. A certain artificiality was bound to be involved in the operation. Even this does not escape this keenly observant and acute student of Vedic literature, which is all the more remarkable (for him and for my views) in that he had no inkling of the manner in which or the purpose for which according to my conception the Collection came to be made.

"The Atharvan hymns", says Bloomfield, "were completely 'rishified' and Brahmanised, even the mantras and rites of the most primitive ethnological flavour have been caught in the dragnet of the priestly class and made part of the universal Vedic religion. Thus the AV with its popular beliefs poses outwardly in the same attitude of dignity as the RV with the soma-rites; that its Brahmanical priests handle charm and hocus pocus as religion, not as superstition. As a natural consequence, the Vedic Pantheon is brought down to participate in the common people's customs and superstitions. But one feels the difference, they are employed mechanically, they have become sterile, and only rarely develop their character beyond the point at which the RV leaves them". But develop they did when they had got time, and with a vengeance too, in the Purana literature 1

This is Bloomfield's judgment on the written texts of the Atharva Veda. These too must have been the characteristics of the oral (in my sense) sraula Atharvan Collection. That this judgment can be passed on the written text is proof that it does not substantially differ from what might have been the oral compilation.

Before passing on, it is desirable to point out that this trick of "rishification" is practised on the brahmodya, cosmogonic and theosophic matter also, and these too leave behind them the same artificial flavour. One finds this process worked out with some thoroughness in the Vrātya Book also (AV XV), specially in the manipulation of the sāmans.

In fact, this free, conscious, deliberate and purposive handling of whatever material came under the Brāhman priesthood's manipulating hand was, I believe, first set going by the Atharva Veda; and it soon became a settled habit. What further developments this habit finally led A15.

to will be seen later. The  $R\bar{a}jakarm\bar{a}ni$  did not receive as much of it immediately as the rest, but the omission was more than made good in the later literature of the Brāhmaṇas. 49

49 The  $R\bar{u}jakarm\bar{u}ni$  are a specially distinctive feature of the Atharva Veda. The Vaya Purana puts the matter succinctly when it says:

राज्ञ स्त्वथर्ञ्ववेदेन सर्व्वकम्माग्यकारयत् (Ch. 60. 20)

And yet a few verses below, this Purāṇa expressly notes that the Aśvamedha yajña is provided for in the Yajur Vedas (It is really not provided for in the AV, though it is the greatest of the Rājakarmāṇi, greater even than the Rājasūya. This too, though it receives notice in the AV, is dealt with more fully in the Yajurs). The two aśva sūktas in the RV, besides being ambiguous, have been found to be very late additions. The Rājasūya and the Aśvamedha are taken up for further development in the Brāhmaṇas.

I have, after giving the matter the fullest consideration, come to the conclusion that the provisions in the Srauta literature as a whole for the Asvamedha and Rajasuya ceremonies are additions made to the previously existing scheme of ritual practices obtaining in the Aryan settlements, under subsequently supervening Atharvanic influences. The original Aryan ritual scheme had no Rajakarmani to provide for because the institution (of Kingship) itself for which they were to be provided did not exist. The Ksatriya chieftains of the Aryan land (whom the Brahmans made into a principle to sit upon) had no chance of developing into royalties properly so called to whom all persons without distinction would be owing homage and obedience as though by nature's ordinance. Consecrated rulers of the people and the country by divine right belonged to Vrātya countries. Naturally a Priest's Manual compiled for use in Vratya land would be the only one to take notice of Rajakarman; the other Samhitas would do this only after this institution had extended itself to Aryan lands, which is exactly what happened. In fact, the Asvamedha and Rājasūya ceremonies may be said to have pushed their way into the Aryan Vedic ritual scheme by the vis major of the Brāhmanised Vrātya Kings. If this were not so, the Brāhmans could be confidently relied upon never of their own accorde to have lent themselves to the inventing of a hieratic ceremony in which (as the Vrhadaranyaka Upanisad casually, and therefore the more conclusively truthfully, testifies) the Brahmans occupying lower seats did homage I ought to note in passing that according to both Oldenberg and Bloomfield, the grihya ceremonies which form the subject of treatment in the Grihya Books were originally not decked out with the reciting of poetic texts ater the manner of the Śrauta rituals; and that they too had undergone much "rishification" before they found literary form in some stray passages of the Brāhmaṇas and later in the more systematised Grihya Books. I accept this view as entirely probable. If then I am correct in saying that these Grihya Books have to do with the domestic ceremonies of households in the Aryan West, the "rishification" of these ceremonies was a result of the fashion which was set and the habit that was created by the treatment of the grihya ceremonies in vogue in Atharva land by the Atharva Veda in the first instance.

I have now completed my survey of the data which, I feel, justifies me in accepting responsibility for the statement that the first unwritten Vedic Samhita was a

to the Kārtriyas: बाह्यण: चित्रमायस्तात् उपास्ते राजसूरे (Vrhad. Up. I 4.11). These royal ceremonies would naturally not receive their full share of "rishification" until the need for such incorporation should be clearly realised. Thus the consecration ceremony as described in the AV (IV 8) shows hardly any trace of the process. What it came to be after the "rishifying" had had full play may be seen from the account in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa. For a most instructive view of "rishification" in actual progress, see the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa's account. Vide pp 61n, 63n, supra.

(S. B. E. XXX. Introduction) should be mentioned at this place. Although after the process of "rishification" had been completed, the Grhya Books began to claim special relationship to specified Srauta Sūtras and through them to particular Saṃhitās, the grhya ceremonies at no stage came to be viewed as other than smārta (based, that is to say, on tradition), whereas the śrauta ceremonies proper came to be regarded as having been revealed in the Brāhmaṇa Books. There are, it is hardly necessary to add, no Grhya Brāhmaṇas.

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Collection of materials made chiefly to serve as a Priest's Manual for the newly Aryanised Eastern Vrātya land though not entirely confined to such material, that it had in the beginning no pretensions whatever to canonical authority in the Vedic sense, and that it is this Collection which (after it had gathered into itself canonical authority) found written expression in what is now known as the Atharva Veda.

Such a Collection once made was bound to have repercussions in Aryan land. The texts of Baudhavana previously noticed furnish evidence of the flow of this Neo-Aryanism of the East westward to Kuru Pāńchāla. The Videgha Māthava legend of the Satapatha Brāhmana already noticed furnishes equally cogent evidence of the vestal fire of Simon-pure Vedic Aryanism having at a much earlier period "burnt its way" through from the Sarasvatī eastward to and across the river Sadānīrā, dividing what, at the time the Brahmana was written, were the countries of Kośala and Videha. There must have been, not long after this tide of Neo-Aryanism was set flowing westward, tracts of "no man's land" wedged in between purely Aryan settlements and the formally Arvanised Atharva land, where there would be a large population of converted Vrātyas with, as their shepherds, Brāhman priests ministering the rituals of the Ātharvan Collection; but amongst them would be found settled a sufficient number of Brahman priestly emigrants (with Kşatriyas able to provide vrittis) to form a College and to perform the hieratic yājñic rituals in the manner they were performed in Aryan lands. The supposition that some of these very Brāhmans would be the convert population's ministers is not at all an unlikely one. But whether this was so or not, the existence of a Collection of mantras and ceremonies in use by Brahman priests, a Collection too

which was unorthodox and lacked Vedic canonicity, would be a matter of common knowledge in the College. This knowledge could not but produce a desire to prepare an authoritative Collection of the orthodox mantras and rituals, if only to preserve them from contamination and even supersession by the Atharvanic Collection with the start the latter had been given from being at that date the first and only existing authorised Collection. It is not at all unlikely too that the Atharvanic priests themselves, whether they were members of the College or not, would be the first to feel within themselves the necessity for such a Collection and from the same motives. And in the same proportion in which they had felt themselves free to modify and mould the Atharvan practices to make them fit in with Aryan beliefs and predilections they would also feel the necessity of seeing that the orthodox material was not tampered with or modified. It would be essentially a highly conservative orthodox movement. They, these priests officiating in the houses of the converted Vrātyas, would, it seems only too probable, not only feel this impulse within themselves. they would even instigate the initiation of this movement within the Colleges, whether they were members of the Colleges or not. I cannot otherwise account for the total absence of any trace of hostile feelings towards the Atharva Veda in the Samhitas of the Travi as also of similar feelings entertained for the Trayi in the Atharva Veda although they all came to be written down long after their oral "Redaction". (ज्यास) 51

The state of the Atharva mantras were never taken to pieces, the term "redaction" correctly applies only to the Trayi, as will be presently seen, and not to the Atharva Veda Collection. My hypothesis is the only one that satisfactorily accounts for the apparently strange fact that the Atharvan material was not even attempted to be "redacted" after the manner of the Trayi. They could not be, any more than could the grhya ceremonies of the Sūtra works of that name.

Lacking a suitable written medium which would give permanency of form to the matter collected, this intensely orthodox conservative movement would adopt every means available to preserve the integrity of the Collections in the oral medium. And this is exactly what was done; and indeed the ingenuity displayed in securing this end is little short of the marvellous.

The mantras and the song-practices were taken apart, and the ritual practices were similarly isolated. Each division was made over to a distinct college of pupils for memorisation. In the colleges, the special material made over was arranged in convenient compartments, and almost every other consideration was sacrificed to the supreme object, namely, memorisation. There is nothing new in what I have stated in this paragraph. It is common knowledge.

But I submit most respectfully that the originating motive of this strange procedure could be no other than what I have traced it to, as a reaction, namely, to the prior Collection of the Ātharvaņic mantras in the manner and for the purpose they had been collected. This is the external impulse which led to the transformation of the original Vedic Aryan ritual practices from what I have called the smārta (in my sense) to the immediately following oral frauta (also in my sense) stage. It is these "redacted" oral Collections which, long afterwards, took written form, but not before additions and modifications had forced themselves in, notwithstanding the elaborate precautions that had been taken to prevent them.

Not all those who have reflected upon this "redaction" phenomenon have fully realised the amount of violence to which the Srauta practices were subjected by this process. The author of the Vāyu Purāṇa at any rate was feeling it very keenly when he wrote this Purāṇa; and not being in

a position to realise the nature of the necessity which called for its adoption seems even to have questioned the wisdom of the reputed "redactor" Kṛṣṇa-Dvaipāyana Vyāsa in originating this movement. The following quotation from Ch. 60 will be found interesting for more reasons than one:

एक म्रासीद् यजुर्वेद स्तं चतुद्धां व्यकलपयत्।
चतुर्होत्रं अभूत्तिस्मं स्तेन यज्ञमकलपयत्॥
म्याध्यर्थ्यं यजुर्भिस्तु म्रिनिमहोत्रं तथैव च।
उद्गात्रं सामिश्रक्ते ब्रह्मत्वं चाप्यथर्व्यभः।
ब्रह्मत्वं सामिश्रक्ते ब्रह्मत्वं चाप्यथर्व्यभः।
ब्रह्मत्वमकरोत् यज्ञं वेदेनाथर्व्यणेन तु॥
ततः स म्रचसुद्धृत्य म्रावेदं समकलपयत्।
होतृकं कलप्यते तेन यज्ञ्चाहं जगद्धितम॥
सामिः सामवेद् त्रतेनोद्गात्रयरोचयत्।
म्राख्यानेश्राप्युपाल्यानेगिश्याभः कुलकर्म्मभः।
प्राण्यासंहितां चक्रे पुराणार्थं विमारदः॥
यच्छिप्रनतु यजुर्वेदे तेन यज्ञमथायुजत्।
युञ्जानः स यजुर्वेदे हित शास्त्रविनिश्रयः॥
पदानासुद्धृतत्वाच यजुर्तेस विषमाणि वै।
स तेनोद्धृतत्वीर्थस्तु म्रित्वग्भि व्वेदपारगैः।
प्रयुज्यते ह्यस्वमेधस्तेन वा युज्यते तु सः॥

Vāya Pur. 60. 17-23.

He apparently also holds Dvaipāyana Vyāsa ultimately responsible for the sākhābheda which strikes him as a most deplorable development. Vāyu Purāņa 61. 77 is as follows:

एवं वेदं तदा व्यस्य भगवानृषिसत्तमः । शिष्येभ्यश्च पुनर्दत्त्वा तपस्तप्तुं गतो वनम् । तस्य शिष्यप्रशिष्येस्तु शाखाभेदास्त्वि मे कृताः ॥

He, Veda-Vyāsa, should indeed have known better than to have gone to the forest (वनं) for practising austerities ( तपस्तप्तं ) without completing the work he had begun. What possibly else was to be expected from his disciples and the disciples of those disciples after he had left<sup>52</sup>?

Unlike the Atharvan Collection, these Collections would possess canonicity from the very outset. The Collection and Redaction of the hieratic songs and practices of the Vedic Aryans would thus be "Srauta" not only in my sense. but in the technical Vedic sense also.

Before pursuing further the implications of the hypothesis I am putting forward, I wish to draw pointed attention to the conclusion which, proceeding along lines of research of a kind entirely different from mine, was reached by a scholar of such eminence as Weber. He is of opinion that it is to the Kuru-Panchalas and the Kosala-Videhas that the chief merit of having fixed and arranged the text of the Rk as well as that of the Yajurs belongs.

The Sākhābheda, which the author of the Vayu Purana laments and for which he seems inclined to hold the originator of the redaction idea (Kṛṣṇa-Dvaipāyana Vyāsa) as ultimately responsible, was in any case inevitable, the medium of the Collection remaining oral. But in one sense the originator or originators of the redaction idea were truly responsible for it. They set a fashion which proved highly contagious. The priestly schools wherever they existed, whether in the homelands of the Aryan Brahmans or in the Vrātya lands to which they had migrated in

<sup>52</sup> I shall later submit that the extreme methods of interpretation and exegesis to which the material of the Trayi was subjected in the Brahmanas were what the latter were driven to adopting by the faulty nature of that material, and this was owing in a very large measure to the "redactory" mutilation.

sufficient numbers to be able to organise such a school or schools, busied themselves in collecting and redacting, for all they were worth, each in its own fashion, to the accompaniment no doubt of interminable discussions and debates, exchanges of ideas and perhaps also of incivilities, co-operation alternating with quarrel, as the Vayu Purana account itself leads one to infer. A great deal of material which would have quietly and perhaps profitably sunk into oblivion owes its preservation to what with fullest justice may be likened to a movement of Renascence, a Renascence which owed its origin entirely to the reaction produced by the Atharvanic Collection. It was, taken all together, a most extraordinary concatenation of events. if one will only consider that here heterodoxy precedes and provokes into existence orthodoxy, a heterodoxy which was set up and organised for professional purposes by the very orthodox amongst the orthodox, a heterodoxy again which was connived at by both the ruling class and the priesthood though neither of them appears to have had any faith in it. If this is what happened, dare we blindly apply European analogies to explain how it happened?

I need not assume the correctness of the details of the movement as given in the Veda-Vibhāga Chapters of the Vāyu Purāṇa (Chapters 60 & 61), any more than has been done by others. But the Renascence character of the movement as a whole is finely borne out by these Chapters, though these even are not able to give more than a truncated view of the whole movement, for a most important part of that movement (necessarily left out in a treatment which concerned itself only with the Veda-Vibhāga) was the dissemination of the Upaniṣad Vedānta amongst the Aryan Brāhmaṇs. That the Brāhmaṇs eagerly and avidly sought instruction in this new A16.

learning from its originators and early professors the Ksatriya rajanyabandhus and were actively aided and encouraged therein by the latter is patent on the face of the Aranyakas. As the details of this part of the movement will come up for more convenient treatment in the context of the earlier part of Section XIV, I refrain from further pursuing this topic at this place.

#### Section XI

The Puranas: Their Special Affinities with the Atharva Veda.

If the distinction I have drawn between the smarta and the subsequent srauta stages of traditional matter is kept clearly in mind, it should be recognised that there was one species of traditional material which became śrauta (in my sense) even before the material of the Atharva Veda. 53 The Sūta-Māgadha (perhaps, I should add. Videha) bard-priests in the Atharvan land must have been accustomed to handing over the sagas of the Royal houses for purposes of recital to their children and pupils from before the advent of Brahman priests in Vratya land. But as the Vayu Purana verses I have quoted show, the collection of gathas and chronicles etc. ("sagas" would be a good all-embracing English equivalent) also entered a more actively self-conscious phase at the touch of the same Renascence movement, The new Purana collection (oral, of course, still, as all the others) underwent an expansion in scope, since it started the Aryan Brahmans also on the work of collecting saga-stuff concerning the families of

53 Is this the sense which (in its own way) was sought to be conveyed by the Vayu Purana in the following verses?

प्रथमं सर्व्वशास्त्राणां पुराणां ब्रह्मणा स्मृतम् । श्वनन्तरञ्ज वक्त्रे भयो वेदास्तस्य विनिस्ताः ॥ श्रङ्गानि धर्माशास्त्रञ्ज बतानि नियमा स्तथा । notable reis and reputable Aryan Ksatriya houses, these finding way naturally into the Brahmanas. But the collection of saga matters as a whole appears from the Vāyu Purāņa account not to have been taken entirely over into Brahman hands until long afterwards. They appear to have been left in the hands of men of the Sūta caste who still went on pursuing their hereditary calling of Royal bards and chroniclers of the histories of the Rajanya notabilities. But the suggestion contained in the same account that at the time the Vedic Samhitas were being collected and redacted, the Akhyanas, the Unakhyanas, the Gathas and Kulakarmas also were collected and redacted into a Purana-Veda and by the same agency cannot be rejected as entirely baseless, and as being a mere cover on the part of the author of a Purana for claiming quasi-scriptural authority for the Puranas as a whole. For, in the first place, though by the time they are first reduced into writing (a very late age) they have been subjected to very intense Brāhmanification, neither then nor at any time before had they been actually accorded scriptural authority. Contemporaneous commentators on the Srauta literature are indeed found labouring to explain that when Puranas, Gathas and Itihāsas are spoken of in that literature along with the Vedas (as in the two instances I have cited from the AV and the Vrhadaranyakopanisad),54 this must be understood to mean such accounts of that character as might be found in the Brahmanas and nowhere else. That the commentators are hopelessly wrong in this I shall presently demonstrate, even if the very forced nature of the explanations be not considered to furnish their own refutation. (To apply the commentators' restrictive meaning to the term

<sup>54</sup> AV XV 6.4; Vrhadar. UP. II 4.10; IV 5.11. Text 2 of the 7th Adhyaya of the Chhandogya Upanişad honours the Itihasa-Puranas with the title of the Fifth Veda.

"Purana" when it is found occuring in a text of the Atharva Veda would result immediately in ante-dating the Brahmanas before that Veda, for one thing). Taking the term "Purana" then in that text and in the other Srauta texts (it must in the later Brahmanas and other Srauta texts have the same meaning that it is found to have in the AV text) to mean and include sagas of both Aryan and Non-Aryan origins, the honourable mention they repeatedly receive in the literature of the Samhitas and the Brahmanas demonstrate at least this: that the Atharvanic Pauranic material must in any case have been brought under some kind of Brāhmanic censorship before the composition of these texts, even though it was still left at the disposal of the Sūtas for professional and teaching purposes. And as the earliest of these texts is the AV text, this must have happened about the same time that the Brahman priests took over the business of officiating at the domestic ceremonies of the people of Vrātya land (King, nobles and the common folk) from the Sūta-Māgadhas. This control in the nature of censorship was obviously tightened up at the period of the "Redaction"; and a learned Sūta (still regarded as a sort of Brāhman) thoroughly versed in the Purāņa lore might have been sent for by the "Renascence" Brāhmans, and "put through his paces", so to speak, and being thereby thoroughly "primed" from the Brāhmaņic view-point, was given his teacher's degree which qualified him to give instructions in the Purana-Veda. This, I am firmly persuaded, is the substratum of truth that underlies the certificate given in the Vayu Purāņa to Lomaharṣaṇa (a figure as fabulous in point of fact as his alleged teacher, Dvaipāyana Vyāsa himself). This certificate deserves quotation for the delectation of my readers, if not for the purposes of my thesis:

......महाबुद्धिः सूतः पौराणिकोत्तमः॥ लोमानि हर्षयाञ्चक्रे श्रोत्रियां यत् छमावितेः। कार्मग्रा प्रथितस्तेन लोकेऽस्मिंह्योमहर्पग्रः॥ तपः श्र्ताचारनिथे वेंद्व्यासस्य धीमतः। शिष्य वभूव मेघाची त्रिषु लोकेषु विश्र्तः॥ प्ररागा वेदोद्धाखिल स्तस्मिन् सम्यक प्रतिष्ठितः। भारती चैव विपुला महाभारत वर्द्धिनी॥ धर्मार्थकाममोज्ञार्थाः कथा यस्मिन् प्रतिष्ठिताः। सूक्ताः सपरिभाषाश्च भूमावीषधयो यथा॥

Vāyu Pur. Ch. 1. 14-19.

"The keen-witted Suta and amongst Pauranists the greatest, inasmuch as he was able by his elocution to gladden the hearts of his hearers to the point of agitating the very hairs on their bodies, came on that account to be famous all over the world under the title of Lomaharsana. In all the three Lokas, he obtained celebrity as the talented pupil of the sage Veda-Vyāsa, the repository of all austerities, scriptural learning and mores. The Purana Veda, in plenitude, was firmly established in him (the great epic history commemorating Mahābhārata inclusive), enriched as the same is by (whatever can be said concerning) dharma, artha, kāma and mokṣa, and by sūklas and paribhāsās, in the same way as the Earth is enriched by grain-producing plants".

Whether this hyperbole does more than justice to the first Sūta-Paurāņist disciple of Brāhmņical teachers or not it does full justice to the Puranas as propaganda literature for spreading the varna-āśrama cult amongst the population, specially amongst those in the lower ranks. The idea of taking over the Purana literature entirely into Brahman hands had apparently not crossed the Brahman mind at this stage, but there can be no doubt whatever that during

the period of the Redaction-Renascence, the Purāṇas were partially Brāhmaṇised in the manner stated; and that this partially Brāhmaṇised (in my sense) oral śrauta Purāṇa was still left in charge of Brāhmaṇ-taught Sūtas. This is established beyond all reasonable questioning by the pretence religiously maintained even in the extant Brāhmaṇ-written Purāṇas (the direct Brāhmaṇ authorship of which is patent on their very faces) that the narrators of them were Sūtas.

When the Purāṇa literature finally came to assume written form, it appeared as the most perfect and finished embodiment of Brāhmaṇism in its maturity, with the varṇā-śrama scheme fully worked out, to an extent indeed not to be met with in any other single variety of Indo-Aryan literature. Brāhmaṇism of the varṇāśrama kind appeared in these written Purāṇas like Minerva or Pṛthu Vaiṇya, armed cap-a-pie.<sup>5</sup>

I shall now take up for special consideration a reference to the Purāṇas contained in a text of the Chhāndyogya (Āraṇyaka)-Upaniṣad which will not only discredit the attempts of the commentators to foist their forced interpretations upon all references to the Purāṇas occurring in the Śrauta literature, but will be of value in other ways also for the purposes of my thesis.

In the Khandas 1 to 4 of the 3rd Adhyaya of this Aranyaka, the Sun has been likened to a bee-hive wherein honey for the gods is stored. The eastern cells of this

55 Of Prthu Vainya's marvellous first appearance on the scene of his future labours, I quote the following one-line description from the Harivamés as a masterpiece of literary compression.

स धन्नी कवनी खङ्गी तेजसा निर्दृष्टिश्व । पृथुर्वीयः ....॥ Sun honeycomb, it is said, are being filled with honey by the rchas acting the part of bees, the yajñas mentioned in the RgVeda being indicated as the flowers from which the rcha-bees are drawing their syrup (Ag). For the southern and eastern cells similarly the yajur and the sāman mantras respectively act the part of bees, the flowers they draw from being respectively the yajñas mentioned in the former and the practices prescribed in the latter. For the northern cells, lastly, the mantras of Atharva and Angiras are said to be serving as the bees. And what are the floral sources from which these garner their honey? The Itihāsas and Purānas!

# श्रथ ये ऽस्योदञ्जे रहमयस्ता एवास्योदीच्यो मधुनाड्योऽथ व्वीन्त्रिस एव मधुकृत इतिहासपुरागां पुष्पं ......

Chhānd. Up. III 4.1.

The patented explanation that these are the saga-stuff to be found in the Brāhmaṇas does not work at all. The only Brāhmaṇa works that had materialised to date were attached to the other Vedas. Another has to be attempted; and it is stated in all seriousness that reciting of Purāṇas and Itihāsas or hearing them recited being the only means of keeping awake when long-drawn sattras were in session, 500 this must have been the reason for the composer of this text hitting upon these as the flowers of his Atharvaṇic honey-bees! Q. E. D.

workless nights which are to be "killed" by the hearing of Purāna stories, is indeed made in connection with the Aśvamedha ceremony only. But the Purānas make it clear, as has been seen, that the rsis when engaged in hieratic ceremonies on their own account also occupied themselves during the intervals in listening to Purānas from the lips of a Paurānic Sauti. The commentators however make a point of the pāriplava provision in the Āśvamedha ceremony being the one that establishes the required connection between the Atharva mantras and

It is true, as I shall presently have to affirm, that the writers of the Brāhmaṇa literature were rather absurdly casual sophists. But even so, I should not be prepared to attribute to the writer of this text the colossal casualness that is implied in the explanation offered by a commentator who actually believed in the canonicity of this Śrauta text!

I affirm that casual as Brāhmaṇa writers often were in what they wrote, the relation in which the text in question occurs is exactly one of those where the author would specially take care not to be casual, not to speak of being absurdly so. What he wrote in such a context had to convey at least passable sense; and the sense he actually conveyed by the mention of the Itihāsas and Purāṇas as the sources of the honey drawn upon by the Ātharvaṇic texts is not only passable, it is absolutely sound sense. The Atharvaṇigrasa mantras and the Sūta-Māgadha-collected Purāṇa and Itihāsa sagas were in very truth and reality the bees and the flowers of the literary woodland of the Eastern Vrātya country! Need I add that these texts form one of the most significant historical fossil finds I have had the good fortune to pick up from

the Purānas. But we have seen also that the Atharva mantras make no provision whatever for the Asvamedha ceremony. Its omission from the AV does not of course make this Royal rite any the less an Eastern Vrātya rite by origin; and the express provision of pāriplava nights in connection with this ceremony itself goes some way towards establishing its Ātharvaṇic affinities, even if its being a Royal rite was by itself considered not sufficient for the purpose. But these are my views, not the commentators'. The Asvamedha ceremony forms a part of the Yajur Veda and it has been regarded as specially distinctive of that Veda in the contemporary Purāṇa literature, a view in which the commentators must have shared (see the verses from the VāyuPurāṇa, quoted at p 119, supra). Having done my very best to place myself in the position of the commentators, I still find myself wholly unable to attach the slightest value to their explanations which appear to me to be as forced as they are absurd.

what as a rule provides a not very hospitable bed-receptacle for such deposits, I mean the Brāhmaṇas? How beautifully it hangs on to the other related fossils, the Sūta-Māgadha deposit in the Pṛthu-Vaiṇya legend of the Purāṇas, the Lomaharṣaṇa-Purāṇa-Veda-Redaction deposit of the Veda-Vibhāga accounts belonging to the same literature and others which it is unnecessary to recapitulate here! They are all little bricks of such sound material that they give me confidence in my ability to build a firm unshakeable structure out of them.

The Puranas and the Atharva Veda are not only related as drawing their sustenance from the same habitat, they are parts of the same social organism. They are just those parts of the Indo-Aryan literature which have been subjected to the intensest and the most reckless kind of propagandistic Brāhmanisation. The scruple against liberties being taken with the original traditional material which marked the "Redaction" movement (which, as I have said, affected the material of the Trays only) had no place or relevancy in the preparation of either the one or the other of these two. Both again are found to be highly coloured propaganda literature for the exaltation of the King on the one hand and the Purohita and the priestly class on the other, just what one would expect in the literature of the Eka-Vrātya Brāhman Concordat. To try to relate them together as honey-bees and flowers is no doubt in large part poetry. But I would not hesitate myself to designate them as flowers of the same garden, if not of the same bed. The author of the Chhandyogya Āranyaka mantras in question was not so very casual after all. He talked sense and history as well as Upanisad and poetry.57

<sup>57</sup> If it is the same author who wrote the Sanatkumāra-Nārada colloquy Adhyāya of the Āraṇyaka (Chhānd. VII), he appears from the

2nd text of the 1st Khanda of it to have had a high opinion of the Puranas as literature, since to them he accords the title of the Fifth Veda. Narada in this text gives a fine enumeration of all perhaps that could be learned by scholars in the days of the Aranyaka, and it is not all Vedic literature. The text is:

ऋग्वेदं भगवोऽध्येमि यजुर्वेदं सामवेदाथर्व्यां चतुर्थम् इतिहासपुरागां पञ्चमं वेदानां वेदं (=व्याकरणं according to the commentators) पित्रं (science of performing śrāddhas) राशिं (=गणितशास्त्रं, mathematics) देवं (science of omens) निधिं (mining) वाकोवाक्यम् (dialectics) एकायनं (politics) देवविद्यां महाविद्यां भृतविद्यां चत्रविद्यां तद्मत्रविद्यां सर्प देवजन विद्याम् (the last is explained by the commentators to mean and include the art of preparing perfumery, singing, dancing and decorating the person!) एतद्भगवोऽध्येमि। With this encyclopædic acquisition Nārada is nevertheless not satisfied because he is still not च्रात्मिद्य; and Sanatkumāra agrees observing यहं किञ्जेतद्ध्यगीच्टा नामवेतत् (Chhānd. Up. VII 1. 2-3).

#### Section XII

## Atharvanic Influences on The Srauta Literature.

I have traced the movement for collecting redacting the Mantra Samhitas of the Trayi to an Atharvanic reaction. The Atharvanic priests, so far as concerned the preparation of the Atharva Veda and the Puranas, were experimentalists on a liberal scale, rationalists in a way (since they did not hesitate to subordinate the Vedic religious elements to the more enlightened pre-Upanisadic doctrines which they had derived from the Vrātya Rājanyas) and fairly advanced sophists. Whether the fear that similar experiments might be tried upon the materials of the orthodox Vedic Aryan practices had any part in the ruling motive which created the movement for the Collection and Redaction of the Travi, it is difficult to surmise. But the fear of Atharvanic admixture contamination was a very real one and must have been felt as such. The elaborate precautions which were taken (whether they were taken against possible rationalistic experimentation or against passive adulteration) failed however in the long run to keep off either the one or the other.

The extant written recensions of the Mantra Samhitās of the Trayī do bear marks of Ātharvaṇic man-handling and Ātharvaṇic adulteration.

Vedic scholars, by closely examining linguistic and like characteristics along with other data, and the references (specially) to Mantra materials and the manner of their treatment in the later Brāhmana and Sūtra works, have

discovered strata of different dates and different local origins in the Mantra collections of the three orthodox Samhitās. Their industry has been rewarded by such marked success, that I unhesitatingly adopt these conclusions in this part of my thesis.

I agree in the general conclusion at which they have arrived that the Xth Mandala of the RgVeda as a whole (Sūkta 90 of which is the famous Purusa-Sūkta) is Atharvanic in spirit and origin. It might very well have been taken in by the AV as a Khila (supplementary part) to itself. I agree also in considering certain Sūktas of the 1st. Mandala (1. 161-163 the Aśva Sūktas) as a late foreign interpolation, designed it may be, to prepare the ground for the "rishification" and incorporation after "rishification" of the Atharvanic Royal ceremony of Asyamedha in the Brahmanic hieratic scheme of yajñas and sattras. For reasons I have previously indicated (p. 114n Supra), everything bearing on Royal ceremonies in the Samhitas and the Brahmanas may be safely regarded as a post-Atharvanic Eastern importation. The last Sukta of the Xth Mandala of the RgVeda contains an open and unhesitating acknowledgment of the admission into the Aryan religious scheme of new beliefs, new mantras. and new gods as well. The spirit, without doubt, is the spirit of the Sammanasya hymns of the AV and of the Xth Mandala of the RV (which, as I am submitting, ought to be regarded in the light of a Khila of the AV) raised to unsurpassed heights of nobility of sentiment. It is the great संगच्छद्ध' संबद्ध' hymn (RV X 191), of which I make the following free translation:

"Assemble, ye worshippers! Utter ye your prayers in unison. Be your minds as one! Behold! the new gods are taking their shares in the offerings alongside of the older gods!

Let all the mantras be alike, let all the worshippers be like in mind, thought and desire, and let them all be one of heart! Be you all as one !"

Specific notice must also be taken of the Purusa Sūkta (RV X 90). How often has not this Sukta been trotted out as according scriptural sanction to the separation of castes, to the caste-system in fact? The Sūkta undoubtedly proves that its composer had observed and taken note of the existence of castes and the relative disposition of the varnas in the prevalent caste-scheme (along with a number of other disparate objects such as the seasons, curds, clarified butter, sacrificial and other animals!) But the object of the Sūkta is not to separate or to perpetuate separation but the discovery of unity in all this diversity. It is a theosophic hymn, inspired by the Upanisadic ideas of the Atharva Veda. And inasmuch as the rchas the samans and the yajurs too, as well as those other things, persons or objects, are shown as being emanations of the Purusa, the original principle (the Brahman of the AV and the Upanisads), one finds, here in the heart of the RV. itself (as written down), the subordination of Vedic scriptural elements to Upanisadic ideas. This Sūkta is undoubtedly a late Atharvanic deposit in the earlier Vedic Arvan stratum.

The Yajur Samhitas too contain much material which has accreted to them subsequent to the "Redaction". They are part Mantra, part Brāhmana, a mixed kind of composition which is already there in the AV. Not the matter, but this mixed-composition-manner was probably suggested by the AV. But all the Royal rites included must be of Atharvanic origin. The last Book of the Vājasaneyī Samhitā is pure Upanisad and therefore in the view I have already expressed Atharvanic. The

Purusamedha Sūkta mentions the Vrātva, the Sūta, the Magadha and even the hetaera. It is the Purusa Sukta trick played with a larger and more complex world of men, things and gods, the Pauranic world almost. Upanisad-inspired like the Purusa-Sūkta, it is Ātharvanic in spirit and contents. The Royal rites of Asvamedha and Rajasuva have, in this Veda, secured for themselves honoured places in the scheme of hieratic sattras. These rites, being essentially Atharvanic rites previously unknown in Arvan land, could not have secured these places, if not only Atharvanic ideas but also Atharvanic political institutions, including Royalty itself. had not spread into what was previously Arvan-dominated if not Arvan land. The Yajur-Veda itself thus bears testimony to the advance westward of the Neo-Aryan political and social order which was evolved in Vrātya land. The Satarudriva litanies, finally (to mention only the most conspicuous reference to Rudra-Isana), are pronouncedly Atharvanic. And then the Brahmanas. They literally seethe and wallow in Atharvanism.

Ātharvaņic technique was and had to be sophistical. The whole business of this Veda was Brāhmaņisation of material which was foreign to Brāhmaṇism. This material was in some parts superior to the Brāhmaṇ's native stock of mantras and rituals, but most of it was such as the Brāhmaṇs could not but treat with at least qualified contempt. The forging of links to connect Vedic beliefs and practices with both these varieties of materials and to present them in Vedic garb would naturally call for the employment of very varied forms of sophistry. But the capacity which the Brāhmaṇ mind developed in this direction in the Brāhmaṇa literature, taking their cue from the Atharva Veda, leaves one aghast with astonishment. Readymade mythology, etymology to order, grammar to suit, allegory, pun (any kind of trick in fact that appears to answer best the

immediate purpose of throwing a Vedic garb round a non-Vedic practice, bridging over a text and a practice, or forging a rope-way to connect one kind of speculative idea with another) would be picked up off-hand and cast away when done with to make room for some other. Invention does not stop at explanations and exegeses only. Customs and institutions are fabricated with equal freedom and abandon. All this bag of tricks will be found exemplified in rudimentary or developed forms in different parts of the AV.

It might have been imagined that when they came to deal with their own scriptural practices the Brāhman exegetists would exercise due restraint. But the habit initiated by the AV proved too strong for them.

It is possible also that the nature of the material to be explained or accounted for demanded the application of all this varied technique. The actual practices of the Aryans in many places probably did not coincide with what had got embodied in the authorised versions. The differences might have been so great as to be unbrid geable except by such a bag of tricks. It does seem to me moreover that the "Redaction" itself had done its work but too thoroughly. The piecing together of the dismembered and dismantled ritual practices for any particular purpose, after the persons who had performed the earlier operation had passed away carrying away with them the memories of the ritual as an organic whole, must have proved almost as difficult to their successors as the restoration of the Neanderthal or the Cro-Magnon man from the bones (which only unkind nature somehow failed to destroy) has proved to the has anthropologist. The texts, I suspect, grew more and more incapable of practical use with the passing of years, and in proportion arose the necessity (for a scripture cannot simply be thrown away and replaced by anything found

handier) of exegesis of the acrobatic order previously outlined. The Brāhmaṇa writers, like the authors of the AV, became sophists from necessity.

The Brāhmaṇa exegesis, Roth has observed, "does not appeal to the dicta of the sacred hymns as its first and most immediate source, but rather rests upon the customary ceremonial and (I doubt the validity of the rest of the sentence) upon the earlier conception of that ceremonial;" "that it had not the remotest motive of giving a natural explanation of either the one or the other" (Muir, Original Sanskrit Texts, Vol. II, p. 183). And, observes Max Muller, "there is, throughout the Brāhmaṇas, such a complete misunderstanding of the original intention of the Vedic hymns that we can hardly understand how such an estrangement could have taken place unless their had been at some time or other a violent break in the chain of tradition" (Ibid, p. 185) The break, violent enough, was made by the "Redaction".

But there was no misunderstanding. They misinterpreted on set purpose. And the result was that the very work of interpreting the sacred scriptures made them develop into free-thinkers and sophists! And the authors of the AV were their intellectual parents and preceptors. These in their turn had learned some of these tricks from the old world Rājanyas of Vrātya land, to judge from samples furnished by the speculations, expressly attributed to Rājanya teachers, of Upaniṣadic significance occurring in the Āranyakas. And at each successive stage, the pupils appear fairly to beat their masters at the game. Only compare with the Vrātya Book (AV XV where you will find all the tricks more or less kept within bounds) any of the Brāhmaṇa Books attached to the Trayī.

Eggeling in his Introduction to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa Translation (S. B. E. Vol XIV) observes; A18.

"For wearisome prolixity of exposition, characterised by dogmatic assertion and flimsy symbolism rather than by serious reasoning, these works are perhaps not equalled anywhere; unless, indeed, it be by the speculative vapourings of the Gnostics than which, in the opinion of the learned translators of Ireneus, nothing more absurd has probably ever been imagined by rational beings". I wonder, if the necessity for speculative vapourings on the part of these early Christian free-thinkers was as imperious as it certainly was in the case of the authors of the Brahmanas at all events. They performed their exegetic prestidigitations so very thoroughly that there arose a school of doctors who made it their business solely to study this literature for the purpose of separating the "cream" from the "vapourings" which I doubt if any sensible person in Aryan land ever really believed in. The Brahmana authors certainly did not; for they are seen to expiate for the sins of sophistry they had had to commit for the sake of their scriptures by giving free vent to their unbelief and scepticism concerning these very scriptures in the Aryanyakas. The augurs must, once in a while at least. meet to laugh behind their sleeves, or burst!

It was thus by making their interpretations and, along with these the things they interpreted, contemptible in their own eyes, if not in those of others, that the authors of the Brāhmaṇas paved the way for the ultimate purification of the Upaniṣad speculations from their own not dissimilar tricks of mysticism and sophistry, so that out of this welter at last arose the Free Upaniṣads, the freer and purer for all this catalytic contact with the hocus pocus of the Atharva Veda, the Yajur texts and the Brāhmaṇas in which as an infant it was conveyed, cradled and clouted all the way from the Ātharvaṇ fo the late Indo-Aryan times, across centuries of somewhat slow and retarded growth. In the Āraṇyakas,

there are to be found passages suggestive of atavistic reversion, cheek by jowl with others as good as the best in the Free Upanisads, which latter the Free Upanisads borrow and build upon. If this extremely ill-set-up and irregular float made up of the flimsiest of symbolisms and sophistries was indeed needed to keep from sinking this child of the freest kind of rationalistic thinking, until he should have reached man's state, let us express our thankfulness to the literature of the Brāhmaṇas for a service the value of which is incapable of estimation by any measure not furnished by the Upaniṣads themselves.

This unrestrainedly prolific literature Brāhmana Books could not possibly be carried in one's memory, and could not therefore have been meant to be so carried. This being so, in the course of my cogitations over this literature, I have frequently asked myself, if over and above the example and impulsion already dealt with, there might not also have been an incentive of a more material kind, namely, in the greater accessibility to writing gear and tackle, which at some stage in the evolution of the literature under consideration made it possible not only to reduce the memorised Samhita matter (the AV included) into written records, but also at the same time enabled scholars in general to have freer access to these records and indulge their itch for writing, which took the form of interminable exegetic commentaries on the texts of the Samihitas. It may therefore not be unreasonable to surmise that the Brahmanas, the Sūtra Books (Śrauta and Grhya) and the extant Purānas, unlike the AV, the Trayi and the earlier oral Puranas and Itihāsas (it is this oral saga-stuff which is referred to in the Vedic and Śrauta texts, not the written Puranas), sprang into existence in the full panoply of written literature. But

what exactly were the circumstances that made writing material thus generally accessible, and thereby created what must have constituted a turning point in the history of this literature? Was it the extension of the Magadha Empire down into the deltaic area where palm-trees abounded, making possible the importation of leaves (and reeds too) in quantities sufficient to meet the writing requirements of the now far-stretched Aryan land? Was it Bengal after all which provided the means for building the raft or float upon which the Upanisad child growing into man's state became the Vedanta? And inasmuch as it was the Vedanta which in the hands of methodologists shaped itself into the Darsanas (they are seven and not six, including Buddhism), 5 8 and they (with the commentaries thereon and the commentaries on the Upanisads and the Brāhmanas and the Sūtras) did also have need of much writing material, Bengal in the event supposed can feel only very moderately proud on account of her contribution of leaves and reeds towards the production of this immense literature, the Indo-Aryan literature.

<sup>58</sup> See the Appendix to this section for a Note on Buddhism and the Six Darsanas.

### Appendix A

# A Note on Buddhism, Upanisad Vedanta and the Six Darsanas.

Buddhism's affiliation to the Vedānta is unquestionable. As conceived by Gautama Buddha, it carries the Upanişad doctrines to the limiting point, in a sense. The Vedāntist who has ceased to concern himself with mok even is indeed divided by the thinnest of lines from the Buddhistic  $nirv\bar{a}na$ .

It is on the whole a mistake to regard the doctrines of Buddhism as dissenting doctrines in relation to Hinduism which does not, in the first place, mind sects. Buddhistic doctrines do not deny the three fundamentals of Hinduism, namely, varna, āśrama and the doctrine of re-births; this last appears indeed to be, if possible, overaccentuated in Buddhism. The dividing line between one form of Vedanta doctrines and the doctrines of Gautama Buddha is so very thin, that the Karikopeta Mandukya Upanisad has actually to conclude with a specific warning against that Upanisad being fathered on Buddha! The single feature which marks the original doctrines of Buddhism off from the other systems of philosophy, all rooted in the Upanisads, is that it was the only one which evolved under non-Brahmanic, and even pronouncedly Vrātya auspices, the latter again choosing all throughout to remain uncompromisingly Vrātya in that there was refusal even formally to concede scriptural authority to the Vedas which the Upanisad Vedanta never withheld, in a

manner strikingly suggestive of the attitude of English Equity lawyers towards the Common Law system. That it failed to find grace in the eyes of the Brāhmans need therefore cause no surprise. But this alone does not account for the intense hatred which in course of time came to be entertained for it by what may be regarded as the educated stratum of Indo-Aryan society, culminating finally in the expulsion of Buddhism from India. This hatred clearly did not make its appear ence in the life-time of Gautama who, it should be remembered, died greatly respected and in his bed.

The reason of this growing hatred and distaste for Buddhism is to be sought in the practices of the people who came to call themselves Buddhists and in the unfortunate manner in which the original doctrines of Gautama were perverted by the priest-hood to accommodate them to these practices, with no other object in view than to retain their hold on their swarming following. Buddhism as a creed did unquestionably come to be (in India at least) a gigantic political and social evil. But Buddha's doctrines are by no means dead and may still be waiting for their day, as I verily believe they are. The greatest of Karmayogins cannot have lived and died in vain.

That the other Six Darsanas derive their substance from material furnished by the Upanisad Vedānta has never been in question. Equally beyond question it is that the special doctrines of the particular system which has chosen to appropriate to itself the name of Vedānta do not by any means exhaust the Upanisad Vedānta; nor can it be supposed to reflect the spirit of the latter more faithfully than the others. The credit for doing this belongs to my mind to the philosophy of the Yoga-Sūtras rather than to the philosophy of the Brahma-Sūtras. But personal preferences apart, the Sāmkhya, Yoga and Vedānta systems

may not inaccurately be stated to represent the three conceptual facades of that single concrete organic structure, the Upaniṣad-Vedānta. To the philosophical analyst, the Sāmkhya physics and psychology, the Vedānta ontology and the Yoga physiologico-ethical dynamics, appear to provide the three tripods whereon the Upaniṣad Vedānta is seen to rest. Of the Upaniṣad philosophy, the Svetāśvatara Upaniṣad says with perfect justice that it is the alphaniṣad (VI 13); whilst equally correctly the Mundaka Upaniṣad (III 2. 6-8) indicates Vedānta-vijāāna, Sannyāsa-yoga and Sāmkhya physico-psychology as together contributing the dynamics of mokṣa.

The Yoga syetem has been too readily dismissed by European savants as "gymnosophy." In doing so, they have overlooked the unassailable truth that religious insight, like the scientific and every other kind of insight, stands in need of development by practice and perseverence, and is by no means a matter of pure intuition. It grows and is progressively purified and refined by vigilant self-discipline and passionate pursuit of truth. All kinds of Yoga practices are not to be lumped together as hocus pocus and crude gymnosophy and gymnastics. Scientific Yoga has mental discipline for its object and the discipline is physical only and in so far as it is necessarily accessory thereto. The Yoga methodology in the hands of its masters (not its dupes) has rationalised and corrected the abuses, eccentricities and excesses of tapas (austerity) which is so easily and readily mistaken by fools and fanatics all over the world as the very essence of religion, in the result harnessing it for use and service in the pursuit of the Upanisadic summun bonum of svarājya-siddhi. method, there can be no doubt, has been developed by the usual scientific process of trial and error through mistakes made, corrected and later avoided,

Yoga, the Upanisad philosophy would have easily sunk into dilettantism. The religion of the Upanisads has become dynamic only through it.

The obscurantism and prejudice which have stood in the way of the Yoga system receiving scientific appraisement in the hands of its foreign critics have also led these same critics to make the astounding discovery that the religious ideas of the Upanisads are non-ethical (see, for instance, Farquhar's Primer of Hinduism, 2nd Ed. p. 49)! If to live in constant dread of a vengeful God or to be perpetually beslavouring a sentimental one, and if besides to be in morbid fear of sin and hell every moment of one's existence, is the state which is implied in being ethical. then the Indian religion of the Upanisads is well out of such soul-destroying ethics and religion, Have these critics, I wonder, never come across the Katha or the Mundaka Upanisads, even in translation (I am mentioning two very easily accessible ones)? One who has read the Upanisads with even a modicum of śraddhā will find it hard to fling this of all charges against the one truly scientific and ethical system of religion which has been evolved in the mind of man for the benifit of his kind.

#### Section XIII

# The Doctrine of Re-births and Varna-āsrama-dharma. Attainment by the Atharva Veda of Canonicity and the Title of Brahma Veda. The Onkara.

The central idea round which the Vedanta doctrines of the Upanisads (and the systems of philosophy referred to in the last Section which are derived from those doctrines) revolve and turn is the doctrine of Karma (Re-births), the special and specific article of faith which is common to all forms of Indo-Aryan religious life, and which is what disnguishes it as a type from all other known types. European scholars are agreed that this specially "Indian" doctrine was unknown to the Vedas and unknown to the earlier Brāhmana Books. But it is not correct to assume. as they do, that it germinated somehow or other in the Aryan soil of the Vedas and the Brahmanas. The seeds of the doctrine for which they have laboriously searched the Mantra Samhitas have not been found there. In point of fact, the doctrine of Karma or Janmantaravada does not fit in with the original Vedic scheme of Earth and Heaven. It is, on the other hand, seen to have grown with the growth of the doctrines of the Upanisads; and it is difficult to see how the Upanisad doctrines could ever have taken any but the most rudimentary steps forward without it. It is indeed the central doctrine of the Upanisads.

I have already fully outlined my reasons for giving credit to the basic veracity of the story related in both A19.

the Vṛhadāraṇyaka and the Chhāndogya Upaniṣads of the Brāhmaṇ Aruṇi Uddālaka Gautama approaching, as disciple, the Rājanya Pravāhaṇa Jaibali for receiving from the latter the knowledge of certain doctrines which the Rājanya expressly tells him had up till then been kept by the Rājanyas to themselves and had never been imparted to a Brāhmaṇ. One of these doctrines appears to have been the doctrine of Re-births.

The story begins with Gautama's son Svetaketu who had just completed his education in the school of his father attending the samiti of the Panchālas, where the Rājanya Pravāhaṇa Jaivali, with a view to testing his attainments, asks him if he knew where living creatures went after death; of the two paths, namely, the devayāna which led to Brahmaloka from where there was no returning to this earth, and the pitryāna which led living creatures through ever-recurring rounds of births and deaths; of the causes which determined a person's course along the one or the other path; and of the manner of his transmigrations through various living states (if, that is to say, he should live and die without attaining that self-knowledge which alone can provide access to the higher of the two paths)? Chhāndogya Up. I. 5. 3-8.

The authors of the Āraṇyakas were Brāhmaṇs and the story bears evident traces of Brāhmaṇisation. Text 9, for instance, of the 10th Khaṇḍa of the same Adhyāya of the Chhāndyoga Upaniṣad which concerns itself with the lot of the stealer of a Brāhmaṇ's gold, the taker of a Brāhmaṇ's life and the ravisher of (a Brāhmaṇ) preceptor's wife is on the face of it a highly inept propagandistic interpolation made in the interest of the Brāhmaṇ order. As in the case of the Atharva Veda texts, it may not be possible to isolate completely the genuine original Rājanya stuff

free from Brāhmaṇic adulterations. But there cannot be the least doubt that the "Re-births" doctrine which is there adumbrated is entirely non-Brāhmaṇic; and the method and technique adopted to develop the entire theme must also in the main be non-Brāhmaṇic. The story as a whole appears to be only superficially Brāhmaṇised. The doctrines and the method of presenting them were essentially Rājanya property. And if, in the previous parts of this enquiry, I have succeeded in demonstrating that they belonged by origin to the Eastern Vrātya Rājanyas, it must follow as of course that the doctrine of "Re-births", the central doctrine of the Indo-Aryan Varṇa-āśrama-dharma, which is the core and essence of modern Hinduism, is non-Vedic Aryan, Upaniṣadic and Eastern Vrātya by origin.

How Uddālaka Āruņi Gautama profited by the schooling he received so as even to surpass his Rajanya master and teacher is well illustrated by the contents of Adhyaya of the Chhandogya Aranyaka (the great तत्त्वमिस खेतकेतो Upanişada, Chh. Up. VI). The Brāhmans with their keener wit sharpened upon the whetstone of their own Vedic-Aryan theology (a by no means simple business which needed for intelligent handling the exercise of a keen intelligence and considerable capacity for abstract thought and reasoning) so soon and so obviously surpassed their Rajanya teachers that the latter let them, automatically almost, to take their places as professors and expounders of their own special science. The attitude of King Janaka towards Yājñavalkya and the other learned Brāhmans of Kośala-Vedeha and Kuru-Pāńchāla (he appears to have actively encouraged and favoured the taking up of Upanisadic learning by the Brahmans) could not have been an isolated case. The Brahmans, quite within a short time, appear to have entirely displaced their Rajanya masters as professors and teachers of the Upanisads: the 148

literature of the Upanisads bears the plainest testimony to this fact. 5 9

If Karma-vāda be (as presently it will be shown to be the core and centre of the varṇa-āśrama scheme of life, the varṇa-āśrama-dharma itself is the core and essence of the Indo-Aryan (as also the Modern Hindu) civilization and culture.

Scholars have propounded no end of theories to explain the origin of castes in general and of the Indian caste-system in particular. It is hardly necessary to labour the point that caste-distinctions are not the same as class-distinctions. Class-distinction is cultural and nothing else, and, being cultural only, readily permits the passage from class to class over the border-line which as between the classes which are culturally juxtaposed cannot be and is not very clearly defined. The bounder and the parvenue do not take long to have their edges rounded off so as to become one with the rest of the class into which they have pushed themselves. The bounder, not rarely, is seen even to succeed in installing himself as the beau ideal of the class into which he has entered and to become the dictator of its fashions.

Caste-distinction too must be at bottom cultural. It is class-distinction originally, but raised to such a pitch that it does not merely leave more or less ill-defined boundary lines between the social groups but creates chasms which it needs little short of a miracle or a supreme tour de

<sup>59</sup> It is remarkable that the only post-Upanisadic Darsana based upon Upanisadic speculations which shaped itself entirely in Rajanya (and Eastern Vratya Rajanya) hands, namely, Buddhism, was led to take up such extreme positions that it failed to secure a place in the recognised group of Darsanas.

force to bridge over. The difference must in every such case arise out of circumstances which create strong and insuperable aversion in one class for the other, which not rarely again is fully reciprocated by that other. There have been other historic instances, besides the Indian, of caste-divisions of this type, e.g. that which obtained between the Patricians and the Plebs in the early days of Rome, between the Citizens and the Helots in Sparta, and one other which is a living institution to-day (like the Indian), that between the Negroes and the Whitemen in the United States of America. Caste-distinction, I confess. does not strike me as such a "singular", "monstrous" or "unnatural" phenomenon that explanation of it must be sought in some special kind of "original sin" ingrained in the character of the people amongst whom it flourishes, or in some deeply hidden capacity for exploitation and intigue belonging to the people in the superior strata and an equally mysterious capacity in the others to be led by the nose by the former. Given the special circumstances (which need not be the same in every case), "caste"-distinction is as natural and as psychologically determined a social phenomenon as "class"distinction.

Caste exists to-day in India and has incontestably so existed for ages past; and one has to accept it as a fact as one must accept every other matter of fact and observation. I must also be content to assume that special circumstances existed which gave birth to it. What really interests me in the present context is another fact which stares every investigator in the face the moment he begins turning over the pages of early Indo-Aryan literature, namely, that the Vedic Aryans originally had two aristocratic classes, the Brāhmaṇas and the Kṣatriyas; but neither between them inter se nor between them and the rest of

the vis was the distinction anything but a class-distinction. The Brāhmans and Kṣatriyas were office-holders (chinovniks of sorts) rather than castes. The same family, Muir's collection of texts seems to bear out, might furnish holders of both offices, and those of the family who could claim no such distinction were presumably merely undistinguished members of the vis.

But the later Indo-Aryan literature is replete with evidence which demonstrates conclusively the existence not only of a priestly caste which claims precedence (and is without opposition from any quarter allowed to do so) over a caste, again, of Rājanyas or Kṣatriyas, but further that the rest of the population instead of forming the non-descript viš or even two distinguishable viš-groups thereof (answering the Vaisya and Śūdra varna classification) were compartmented into a multitude of caste-guilds, each self-contained, and to an outside observer presenting no principle whatever of a classification more precise than the very vague one indicated by the terms Vaisya and Sudra). The theoretical classification of this caste-pulverised people into the four principal varņas: Brāhmaņ, Kṣatriya, Vaisya (his last is simply a grammatical derivative from vis), Sudra had proved so little informative that the schematists could not rest there, and proceeded to derive all that multitude of castes by a kind of permutation and combination manipulation of these four, praying in aid the plus and minus principle of anuloma and practiloma unions (condemnatory both, but in somewhat differing ways) where the other process was found to have failed to produce enough differentiation to account for the whole variegated picture. An unassemblable and unclassifiable multitude of castes is as sure a fact and feature of the Indo-Aryan society of the Brahmana and the Purana ages as the varna-sankara

explanation is the very obvious reductio ad absurdum of the attempt of the Brāhman schematists to account for it.60

Given then the fact that caste came where previously it did not exist, what other hypothesis is so obviously open as that it was brought about by the party who profited most by it, was loudest in proclaiming its social merits and most clamorous in demanding its perpetuation, namely, the Brāhman? And this party appeared too, from all evidence, to be so devilishly intelligent that he was just the person, by his machinations, to have compassed it.

And yet it is a suprising fact that he who is supposed to have put the fat into the fire and raised all this smoke and smell has left no trace in his literature to show that he himself knew anything at all of what he had so cleverly and laboriously manipulated for and accomplished! For, search how you may in this literature (and this search has been made), it is the fact that it furnishes no historical explanation whatever of the origin of Indian castes.

But there is the Purusa Sūkta! Does it not seek definitely to accord scriptural sanction to the institution of castes and the disposition therein of the Brāhmaṇa on the top?

It has indeed been a marvel to me to find people reading into this Sūkta exactly the opposite of what it was intended to convey.

Neither the author of this Sūkta nor the very much more closely observant author of the Purusamedha Sūkta in the Yajur Samhitās could possible have shut their eyes

the classification of castes as the naturalists had over the classification of "Species" in recent centuries. And the solution hit upon finally in each case was the genetic one. Whatever else may have to be said of the varna-sankara-anuloma-pratiloma theory of the origin of castes, it certainly shows no lack of brains on the part of its propounders.

upon the glaringly obvious existence of a multiplicity of castes; and the position of pre-eminence held therein by the priestly caste, the Brāhmans. They registered this fact as they were honestly bound to do. But what they were endeavouring to do was not to dig the lines of circumvallation deeper still, but by allegorical means to inculcate and philosophise upon the organic unity subsisting behind the diversity of castes amongst other diversites of this mundane world. To describe things as parts of the same body is a most unusual method of expressing that they have ever been and will always remain separate and unmixable.

Need I point out here that the Vena legend is just another illustration of this same synthesising trend of the Brāhman mind of the time when it was composed?

At a somewhat latter period, the scheming, machinating Brāhman is still seen putting forward the absurd separatistic theory that all men are descended from a single ancestor, Manu or some other fabled patriarch.

Still later, when he has become case-hardened in caste, and has blossomed out into, and been admitted by all to be, the first of castes and has fully persuaded himself that this was so by divine ordination, he is led to concoct the absurd pratiloma-anuloma-varna-sankara theory. But I doubt if even the author of the Manu Samhitā himself actually believed in a tithe even of what he has dished out in the first forty ślokas of the Xth Book.

Theories apart, the Brāhmaṇs did not have anything to say of the observed origin of castes, bacause they did not have any chance of observing it, not to speak of creating it out of their own hands. They happened upon it. Caste was already there, fully flourishing, a fait accompli, in Vrātya land, when the Brāhmaṇ immigrants came there. It must, at first sight, have appeared to them as most strange and incomprehensible that there should, within the

same viś settlement be groups who were in all respects as strangers to one another, more so than were the independent viśas in relation to each other, for these groups seemed averse even to inter-dining, one group with another.

All Brāhman-made theories to explain castes or to explain them away, hitherto considered, are just those which an observant and intelligent people brought without preliminary warning to confront a phenomenon of a very unusual kind, one which initially they could have hardly even conceived as possible, would be seen putting forward for one purpose or another. Not one of these could have been seriously presented by one who had seen it happening and wanted to describe what he saw.

But in the matured caste-system which the Brāhmans lighted upon in Atharva land, they also came across just the one god-send they were looking for to place upon a firm basis that intellectual and moral hegemony which they claimed by merit and which the Aryan Kṣatriyas had shown no disposition whatever of conceding to them, and which they had been contesting inch by inch. Here in Atharva land the King ruled by jure divino, the Rājanyas lorded over the rest of the population also by law divine, and the priests too were priests by the same kind of apparently unalterable divine flat.

The immigrant Brāhmans would not be human if they did not seize the opportunity that was thus presented to establish themselves (along, of course with the King, that was part of concordat) on the top of this social hierarchy. Nor are they to be taken seriously to task for having exploited to their own advantage their exclusive control of the literature of the times by open and active propaganda on behalf of the King and the Priesthood (the Purohita in particular). In all subsequent literature (see the Atharva Veda and the Purāṇas), the two are always joined together A20.

in the Brāhman litterateur's orisons, and hardly ever the one or the other exclusively. This in itself is a great fact to adduce in support of my thesis that the Aryanism which became Varna-aŝrama-dharma had its origin in Vrātya land and was the virtual consequence of a concordat between the leaders of the two competing cultures and polities, the Aryan Brāhman and the Vrātya Rājanya.

So we come across the paradox, not by any means the first that has confronted us in the course of this investigation, of the non-caste Aryan Brāhmaṇ finding himself hoisted on to the top of, and coming to rule over, a hierarchy of Non-Aryan castes, himself claiming and being readily admitted to be the premier caste amongst all castes.

The fact, for all that, has to be noted and appreciated that the varna-element of the Hindu Varna-aśram-dharma is Non-Aryan in origin. But what is distinctive of the Hindu social order is not varna pure and simple; it is varna-cum-aśrama, varnāśrama.

Who brought āśrama into the scheme?

When I started upon my inquiries, I could scarcely have imagined that caste, the coping-stone of Brāhmanism, would have to be outcasted as Non-Aryan and Mlechehha. But even after I had convinced myself that this would have to be done (however much against my grains), I did not doubt that āśrama at any rate would remain a

Aryan Brāhman, Kratriya and other vis-elements were drawn into the Non-Aryan caste units or it may be into unoccupied places within the Non-Aryan caste order, and not that the Non-Aryan castes and communities were absorbed into the Aryan "class" groups. It is thus very true to say that caste entered into the Aryan world by the backdoor of the Great Vrātyastoma, automatically and unconsciously as it were, and not as the consequence of a previously designed set policy. (p. 41 supra).

sixteen-anna Aryan contribution, so that varṇa-āśrama as a whole could be shown up as a varṇa-saṅkara, half Aryan, half Non-Aryan. The satisfaction I was promising to myself for originating a new varṇa-saṅkara as also the artistic satisfaction of making an exact equal division between two contesting claimants, I have had however upon further investigation to forego altogether. The conclusion to which I have been forced by this further investigation is that, though the Brāhmaṇs were solely responsible for working the material up into a system which has extorted admiration from such a discriminating judge as Deussen, both the varṇa and the āśrama elements of this distinctively Hindu institution came from the Non-Aryans (non-Vedic-Aryans, to be precise) of the Eastern Vrātya World.

The Grhya Sūtra works are concerned entirely with the householder, the  $gr\hbar\bar{\iota}$ . The  $gr\hbar\bar{\iota}$  has of course to be born; and in order that he may be able to come into this world under the most favourable auspices, the  $gr\hbar\bar{\iota}$ 's round of propitiatory ceremonies begins from before his birth, from before his conception even. And he has to pass also through his pupilage before arriving at man's state, the state in which he becomes fit to marry; and it is marriage that makes him the full-fledged householder and  $gr\hbar\bar{\iota}$ .

The pupilage for the *dvija* householder's son took the form, according to the Grhya Books, of being sent to live for a number of years with a Brāhman preceptor, from him to learn the Vedas and approved Aryan habits. 62 During

<sup>62</sup> This meant that the Brāhmans had complete control over the education of the members of the visas, which it should be noted was general and almost compulsory, for not to have practised brahmacharya in youth meant degradation to the condition of a Vrātya! Of the marks of a Vrātya, one was नहि अहाराध्य चरन्ति (PB. XVII, 1, 2; Chhānd. up. VI 1. 1).

this period he was required and expected to observe brahmacharya, and this consisted, to ninety per cent of it at least, in the observance of sexual purity and continence. The brahmacharya which the Grhya Books demanded of the grhī in his non-age was neither more nor less than the brahmacharya which in one name or another is demanded and expected, in every civilised community of men of all times and climes, of its immature youth. This brahmacharya of the ordinary householder was different altogether from the brahmacharya of the brahmachārin of the celebrated Sūkta (AV XI 5). The Atharvanic brahmavid brahmachārin is a person of quite another order and of other dimensions altogether. The grhī during this chrysalis stage of his arhi-hood had to be only that kind of brahmachārin which Vrhaspati, according to the Rgveda (RV X 109. 5), had perforce to be, separated when he was from his errant wife.

On attaining man's state he starts his own household by marrying, marrying in order to have children and male children. The procreation of male children was the dominating consideration which prevailed over every other in the Aryan householder's scheme of life. How is he to face the pitrs when he has been finally gathered unto them if he has not left surviving him on earth male descendants in the male line to keep them and himself fed till eternity on oblations to be provided at the regularly recurring sraddha ceremonies?

No  $gr\hbar\bar{\imath}$  ever really died: he was gathered unto his fathers, in another place. Though issue might fail to the living, the ancestors never died. Extinction of a line of living  $gr\hbar\bar{\imath}s$  thus meant starvation to some ancestors till the end of time.

The importance on the part of an Aryan grhī of procreating male issue can never be fully realised to-day

by any one, even a Hindu, who has not read the Jaratkāru legend as it is narrated in the Ādiparva of the Mahābhārata (Chap. 13). The gruesome experience of Jaratkāru's ancestors as depicted there, which compelled Jaratkāru to marry in order to procreate male issue contrary to his inclinations and convictions, awaited every Aryan  $grh\bar{\imath}$ 's ancestors and the  $grh\bar{\imath}$  himself should he die without male issue. The living  $grh\bar{\imath}$ s found their raison d'etre in keeping continually supplied the expanding commissariat requirements of an increasing throng of pensioned ancestor  $grh\bar{\imath}$ s who (after death and inspite of it) continued to be  $grh\bar{\imath}$ s but in another world.

Of course, having male issue only was not enough; oblations had to be offered at regular intervals and in the right manner too, if they were to reach their intended destination. The due performance of obsequial ceremonies thus formed an important section of the Grhya Books.

This community of gṛhīs, consisting of gṛhīs who were living and ancestor gṛhīs who were enjoying oblations in the pitṛloka as pensioned gṛhīs had no room to spare for the vānaprastha and the sannyāsin. They were nowhere in the sequence; for the vānaprastha began where the gṛhī ended (that is, was extinguished altogether as gṛhī), the sannyāsin's state in its turn beginning when the vānaprastha has been able finally to cast off the last vestige of his surviving gṛhī samskāras.

Is it really any matter for surprise then, that the free-thinking Upanisadist from Vrātya land felt constrained to jettison altogether this Vedic nightmare of an ever multiplying horde of oblation-hungry ancestor  $grh\bar{\iota}s$  to be kept for ever in food by a necessarily precarious supply of living  $grh\bar{\iota}s$ , perpetually obsessed on their part by the craving for male issue to be procured anyhow, by fair means or foul, if procreation, for any reason, failed?

The  $\bar{a}\hat{s}ramas$  are "resting places". Resting places to where? To the abode of the pitrs?

The pitryana path which the householder took led to the Chandraloka, the abode of the god who himself passed through phases. Being changeful and inconstant himself how could he, queried the Upanisadist, assure any but asylum to the pilgrim to his loka. temporary as soon as he has eaten through the merits he had acquired by good work in his earthly existence, must perforce go back (so taught the Upanisadist) to the earth again, there to work off the demerits he had been accumulating in the same existence, and in an incarnation determined by the nature of those demerits. A virtuous grhī has no better prospect before him than of repeating this round of births and deaths till eternity if the demerits to his account do not, as is much more likely, lead him into cycles of still worse forms of life.

The grhi, counselled the Upanisad doctor, can make an end of this damning iteration of births and deaths in who knows what diverse forms of existence only by foregoing his craving for the svarga of oblations, a craving which has its roots in the love for the good things of this world which enters into and indeed makes up the whole scheme of the Vedic grhv's life and after-life. Let him by all means be a house-holder, but only (he advised) for the sake of the discipline this state will put him through and the training by sorrows and sufferings it will make him undergo, the better and sooner to make him realise the utter futility of the entire grhī outlook on life and death, a lesson which he might fail to learn to the quick were he to skip the grhī experience altogether. But the grhī experience will come to naught if it should fail to teach him the value and virtue of renunciation and if further it does not incline him to seek refuge in Brahman; for it is only by steadily pursuing this one real heaven of self-knowledge and self-realisation in *Brahman* that one may hope, even in the course of one's brief life-span on this earth, to cheat birth and death of their dues in sorrows and sufferings which otherwise would know no end.

Asramas are truly resting places on the way, not to the paradise of oblations of the ptys, but to Brahman. The vanapras/ha and Sannyasa are truly asramas. The state of the grhi can be made an asrama if only he knows how (or is taught betimes) to make it. The brahmacharya of the student will be an asrama in so far only as, during this state, he is taught to realise that this state too has to be utilised as a stepping stone, like the grhī's, to the attainment of Brahman. There is no objection, from the Upanisadist's point of view, to a brahmacharin student, if he has been so fitted by his pre-natal samskaras, passing directly into the state of the sannyāsin. Such a brahmachārin is indeed to be envied for truly the grhi's experiences are apt rather to lure him away in wrong directions contrary to his higher inclinations. The grhī's paradise of oblations, in any event, is a paradise of fools! Away with it!

The whole āśrama idea is entirely foreign, indeed antagonistic, to all Vedic notions. It is one hundred per cent a Vrātya Upaniṣadic contribution. The Vedic student's state and the gṛhī's were not āśramas before they were transformed into preparatory resting places on the way to the attainment of Brahman by Upaniṣadic dialectic. The vānaprastha's and the sannyāsin's states, which were Upaniṣadic institutions, were on the other hand āśramas from their very inception. Even a cursory reading of the Upaniṣad literature will convince the reader that this was so.

The adaptation of the  $grh\vec{v}s$  state into an  $\bar{a}srama$  evolved gradually. But the  $brahmach\bar{a}rin$  student was

taken in hand for purposes of such transformation by the Upanisadist at quite an early stage in the history of

Indo-Aryan literature and culture.

The Atharva Veda makes the brahmacharin Vedic student the subject of a psalmody in the 5th Sakta of the XIth Book. The brahmacharin Vedic student is, in this Sūkta, exalted to heights which might arouse envy in the heart even of the Great Vrātya of the Vrātya Book (AV XV). But it is not, as European scholars suppose, the Vedic student as such who is so exalted but it is the brahmavid (in esse and in posse) in the Vedic student who is. It speaks of the brahmacharin, who generating (within himself) the Brahman (knowledge of the holy power) is by such knowledge made one with and indistinguishable from it and thereby becomes for the nonce the creator of the universe, and even of Prajāpati himself! The brahmachārin who is stirred by fervor for this knowledge (the brahmachārin in posse now) is not inappropriately therefore the "first-born of the Brahman". That all this hyperbole should be wasted upon a stripling student strikes European scholars as supremely fantastic. But consider the mental state of an elderly Aryan Brāhman who late in life has become conversant with Upanisad doctrines and has come to appreciate its superiority to the Vedic. Would he not regret the wasted years of his youth in the house of his preceptor memorising odd texts and mantras from the Vedas and having had instilled into him doctrines and ideas which were not merely futile but positively misleading? For the purpose of the psalmody he was not taking the Vedic student at his then market-value but at the value he would fetch if he made himself from the beginning the right kind of a student who wanted to know and attain Brahman. The hymn-maker's wish was, in this case, the father to his thought, and he made it pour encourager as the French would say.

To the varṇa-āśrama scheme, the Gṛhya Books, as I have said, gave wide berth; and it is also worked up but casually and fragmentarily in the Brāhmaṇs. But systematic accounts of the whole synthetic dharma are to be found in the Purāṇas and the Dharma Sūtras (Mahābhā. Śanti, 60-63; Gautama Dh. S. I-XVII, to cite one of each), (An attempt to delineate it as it presented itself to me fifteen years ago may be seen in my essay on "The Rāmāyaṇa and the Māhābhārala" which appeared in the Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes, Vol. III, pp. 361-404).

And the scheme is worked out in close organic connection with the Karma doctrine. The merits or otherwise of one's past existence determine not only whether he is to be reborn as man, bird or beast; a big tree or a mere blade of grass; an insect or a worm; a god or a demon; but also, if one is re-incarnated after all in the womb of a woman, whether the individual is to be a male or a female; of high caste or low; have capacity for one kind of āśrama or another; be rich or poor; be healthy or lacking in health; be wise or a fool; be, finally, a Vedic Aryan oblation-hunter or an Upanişadic brahmavid!

And those who worked out the scheme in its entirety were Brāhmaṇs, post-Ātharvaṇic Brāhmaṇs, after the Vrātya Rājanyas had let go of their exclusive hold upon the doctrines of the Upaniṣads. And they did this not under dictation but willingly, enthusiastically and on the whole rationalistically. What I have said in the whole course of this thesis ought to leave no doubt in the minds of my readers that it is my considered judgment that, up to this point, the Brāhmaṇs had never been dogmatic literalists. They were free-thinkers and free workers. They might have been sophists (I really think they were A21.

rather insufferable specimens of that famous breed) but for that very reason they were not pedants. 64

To gather up now some loose ends before I close this Chapter.

I have indicated how the Atharva Veda, although it was in my view the first collection of authorised texts to be prepared, would still, from the Aryan Brāhmaṇ's point of view, be lacking in complete scriptural authority. But even from the beginning it contained matter which demanded respect. Also, being the first in the field, it set the fashion in so many directions (ways of composition, technique of handling special matters, and others which

had become case-hardened bigots and Pharisees, the Brāhmans still go on paying lip homage to the creed of practical wisdom which their predecessors had habitually followed. Even the congealed caste consciousness of the author of the extant Mana Samhitā is able to make room for a śloka which runs so completely counter to the spirit of the entire collection, whether taken as a whole or in detail, that it will not be superflous to quote it here, hackneyed though it has been by frequency of citation.

## श्रद्धधानः ग्रुभां विद्यासाददीतावरादिष । चान्त्यादिष परं धर्मा स्त्रीरत्नं तुष्वृत्वादिष ॥ Mann S. II 238.

Similar passages occurring in the Mahūbhūrata cause less surprise, orthodoxy of the type represented by the Manu Samhitū and the Dharma Sūtras being still in the making at the dato of its composition. See particularly Santi P. Ch. 318, ślokus SS-92, appropriately put into the mouth of Yūjnavalkya who is addressing them to Janaka.

The compiler of the Manu Samhitā, however, very fittingly vindicates his petrified orthodoxy by enjoining upon the King the duty of punishing the Sādra who would presume to inculcate that **TAT** pridefully to the **TAT** by pouring boiling oil into his mouth and cars; Manu S. VIII. 272. In the Dharma Sātras, similar penalties are provided also for Sādras taking instructions in the Vedas. In Gautama Dh. S. XII, the severity of treatment prescribed for presumptuous Sādras assumes sadistic intensity.

I have fully discussed) that without actually setting up any pretences to canonicity, it still succeeded in influencing the literature of the Trayi and their subordinate exegetic supplements in highly significant ways all of which I have duly indicated. In the circumstances it could not have taken many generations for the original purpose of the Collection to be forgotten, and for the consideration which so long it had been receiving on the merits of its contents to pass into and become a general recognition of its canonicity. No doubt borrowings and adaptations of texts from the AV in the Brahmana and Sutra literature are fewer than from the other Vedas. But that is easily explained by the nature of the subject matter of the AV. On the other hand not one single passage is to be found in the Vedic literature as a whole which in any way casts disrespect upon this Veda. Recent generations of Hindu scholars have affected to question their predecessors' acceptance of the canonicity of this Veda, and, for themselves, to despise its contents. Neither the one nor the other is even remotely justified. Not only was its canonicity accepted without question, its claim to be the Brahma Veda is also nowhere found to have been seriously disputed.

This last-mentioned claim is really led on to by the claim of the Ātharvaņic priest for the office of the brahman or the fourth priest at a yajña.

My re-orientation of the AV in the new geographical and historical setting furnishes a basis for this claim which will be found to have been irresistible.

I cannot but hold that the Rājasūya, Aśvamedha and the other Royal cermonies that were later admitted into the Brāhmaṇic scheme of yajñas and saltras must have been so admitted at the instance of the Atharvaṇic Royal priest, and it must have been he who actually recreated these

ceremonies for his master, and with a view to such admission. The division of the work amongst the hotar the udgātar and the advaryu in connection with these ceremonies must have been his. His claim, in such circumstances, if made, to be present at such ceremonies as the brahman or fourth priest to direct and supervise, and also to act as referee whenever doubts arose about the proper performance by the officiating priests of their parts of the work or the proper co-ordination thereof, would be irresistible. (See also p 67n. supra).

As regards the strictly Vedic ritual ceremonies also. the "Redaction" had done its work only too thoroughly. The officiating priests had by it been placed in such a position that none of them could possibly detect or correct the error of the other; and as to co-ordination of their several parts into an ordered whole that too must necessarily have been beyond any one or all of them. For the due performance of the strictly Vedic ceremonies also, the supervision of a brahman or fourth priest who had made some study of the ritual as a whole would therefore be necessary. Mistakes nevertheless were bound to be committed which no brahman however capable or learned could altogether avoid. Now it is just here that the intervention of a priest of the Atharvanic school provided the easiest way out; for in their armoury of spells and sorceries they even had prayaschittas for correcting the faults of ritual practices 165 The demand for the services

Purāna account of Prthu's yajña (dealt with at length in other contexts) which declared that this kind of prāyašchitta came into vogue after and because of the error which was unwittingly committed at that yajña of mixing together the Aindra and the Vārhaspatya havis प्रमादात्त्र सञ्जाप्राथित्व कर्ममु: Vāyu Pur. 1. 32). The passage is, if at all, good only for the suggestion it conveys that this if not all kinds of prāyašchittāni were of Vrātya origin.

of a fourth priest at every hieratic ceremony being there, it hardly admits of any doubt that young Ātharvaṇic priests would be just those who would seek to qualify themselves for this office, for Royal as well as other ceremonies. The claim of the Ātharvaṇists to act as brahmans at all hieratic ceremonies, so far from being regarded as attempts at usurpation, would thus be only too readily conceded.

It was upon this readily conceded special competence of the  $\bar{\Lambda}$ tharvanic priests to act as brahmans or fourth priests at hieratic ceremonies that the title of the Veda itself as the fourth or Brahma Veda really rested. But the theosophic and cosmogonic contents of that Veda and the play it was able, on their basis, to make upon the concept of Brahman in its new signification of the holy power (the  $\bar{\Lambda}$ tman of the cosmos, which is also the Brahman within the individual self) must also have, in a material measure, facilitated the establishment of this title.

All of Bloomfield's surmises as to how the Atharva priest came to establish his claim of being specially qualified to be the fourth or the brahman priest and also as to how the Atharva Veda came to have its title of Brahma Veda conceded to it fit in, I respectfully submit, better with my reorientation of this Veda in the geographical and historical setting I have assigned to it than with Bloomfield's own assumptions in relation thereto.

The last subject which I propose to deal with in this Section is the  $Onk\bar{a}ra$ .

Rationalists as they were, the Upanisad writers seemed to think nothing of wasting pages after pages on it of what strikes the external observer as little better than downright drivel and nonsense.

The incongruity of such a proceeding is accentuated when it is remembered that the Upanisad writers' self-imposed business was to discover the sense or brahman

behind facts and phenomena, ritualistic as well as others. When the facts and phenomena and the ritual elements come ready-made into your hand, you, the interpreter, have to make the best of the job. Resort in such circumstances to every trick of sophistry, elementary as well as advanced, false grammar, false etymology, faked mythology, punning, allegory, symbolism, forced analogy, all these and more seem excusable. But resort to spells and incantations was hardly what was to be expected from these rationalists, driven though they were by necessity to be sophists.

And the worst of it is, and this is my point, this spell of spells, this incantation of incantations, is not what the Upanisad writers found made for them. They made it themselves. (The Chhānd. Up. III 5. 1 specifically makes the Upanisad bees gather honey for the Sun-honeycomb from the  $Onk\bar{a}ra$ -flower!

They could not have made it if they had not been confirmed Atharvanists. The spell-motive overruns the literature of the Upanisads, and the Onkara is by no means the only spell they are found to have played with. They, the Unanisadists, did not of course make the mantras or the chhandas themselves. But the word and letter sounds, the play they made over the aut, the surefa, the sure are their own. In this connection the study of the first two Adhyayas of the Chhandyogya Upanisad will repay close study. 66 Being an Upanisad of the Sama Veda, it happens to be specially suitable for my present purpose; for though the Brāhmanas and Upanisads are extremely eclectic in their selection of the material which is to serve them for their speculations, the sound motive plays naturally a proportionately greater part in a Sama Veda Upanisad than in any other. It does, certainly, in the first two Adhyayas of

<sup>66</sup> See also the same, 4th Adhyaya, Khanda 17.

the Chhāndyogya Upaniṣad. It may be worth while here to give a very brief conspectus of their contents, with the reflections they suggested as I read them.

Beginning with the usual kind of observations on the Onkāra the author is led on to his first clincher:

नानातु विद्या चाविद्या यदेव विद्यया करोति श्रद्धयोपनिषदा तदेव वीर्य्यवत्तर भवतीति खल्येतस्ये वाद्मरस्य (The Oik tra's) उपच्याख्यानं भवति (Chhānd. Up. 1.1.10).

which shortly means that work done (that is to say, ritual practices gone through) without due understanding of the meaning behind them has not the efficacy of the same performed with such understanding. In the second Khanda, an imagined Devāsura myth is resorted to to establish the position that prana is a higher principle than the senses. The third Khanda inter alia illustrates the way in which highly fanciful etymology is made to serve the purposes of the Upanisad doctor. It illustrates also the manner in which the Vedic elements, e.g. mantras and chhandas, and the Vedic practices are sought to be connected with Upanisadic bases like prana and anna. The same techniques are pursued for similar ends in the next four Khandas, but one passage deserves specific reference, namely, where the Onkara is credited with the capacity of making good inadequacies of the rehas, the samans and the yajurs. In the next two Khandas, two Brāhman experts and the famous Rājanya Pravāhana Jaibali are seen engaged in Upanişadic discussions at which as usual the Rajanya has the last word. The next two Khandas (10th and 11th) concern the doings of a very remarkable character, Usasti, son of Chakra; but for my present purpose I must content myself with simply noting that this episode is introduced to establish the futility of unmeaning ritual performances, and also how they acquire efficacy only if their due subordination

to the Upanisad bases prana and anna (not to the Vedic gods, it should be noted) is thoroughly understood. I omit specific references to the contents of what follows in this and in the 2nd Adhyaya though these too go to exhibit and illustrate the devious lines of reasoning which the Upanisad doctors felt constrained to employ in order to arrive at long last at the pure Upanisad of the first text of the 23rd Khanda of the 2nd Chapter, which is this: dharma has three sections: Ritual practice, study and the giving of charity constitute the first section; the very arduous Chandrayana vrata is the second; and the life-long body-wearing observance of brahmacharya in the guru's house is the third. Those who engage themselves in these observances reach the svargaloka (that is to say, the Vedic heaven of oblations, etc). Only those who are firm in Brahman बाह्यसंस्थः the brahmavid ) attain अमृतस्य (deathlessnes, that is, escape from the cycle of births and deaths). But all this sound sense is immediately followed again by by further play upon letter sounds, the vyāhrtis and the Onkara.

This should serve to give the reader a fairly representative idea of the bag of tricks in the armoury of the Upanisad doctor. But the particular point in it which I wish to stress here is the devilishly adhesive manner in which the Om-Wild-Man appears to bestride the Upanisadic shoulders.

The reason, of course, is that the Upanisad doctor lived in an atmosphere which was laden with spells. Like Prospero's island, the Atharvanic world in which he was brought up was pervaded by magic sounds and voices from which there was no escaping; and it does not appear

that the Upanisad doctor even tried to do so. So far from that being the case, did he not himself daily perform miracles of argumentation by lhe mere trickery of wordsounds? Who was it but he that claimed "Śabda was Brahman"?

Now, since there was no getting away from spells, the wisest course was to make the most of it.

And so, at some auspicious juncture in the evolution of Upanisadic thought, the idea arose of pouring all the poetry, all the exaltation and ecstasy, all the abstract flights of the intellect away from anthropomorphism of every shade and colour, that have always attended the never-ceasing and never-to-be-consummated quest for forms to express the inexpressible, into the most moving co-ordination of harmonious vowel sounds that could be concieved in the highest transport of his sonic felicity by the most inspired singer of the sāmans! This I conceive to have been the real origin of the spell of spells, the mantra of mantras, the chhanda of chhandas, the grand culminating point of all incantations, the Om!

And the credit for this unsurpassed discovery must go unreservedly to the Ātharvaņic priest, the originator and inspirer of the whole movement which produced the Indo-Aryan culture and its special mould and vehicle, the Indo-Aryan literature. Who, after this, is to be honoured if not he?

## Section XIV

## The Draupadī Saga. Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava and Jarāsandha: Their places in Indo-Aryan Political History.

All that remains now is the fulfilment of the undertaking given in a previous Section that an attempt will be made to isolate the original Draupadī Saga from the massive Brāhmaṇising entanglement in which it lies enmeshed in the Mahābhārata Epic.

I have designated this Saga the "Draupadī Saga" because undoubtedly she is the central figure of the story. The Mahābhārata world in which she moves is essentially her world and every other figure derives importance from the relation in which he or she stands towards her, as friend, kin or enemy. They revolve round her as though she was their central Sun, all except Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava who is so far more massive and forceful that he easily makes even her and hers bend and revolve round himself.

The evidence available seems to my mind to point to the conclusion that neither Kuru nor Pānchāla ever entertained Aryan viêas to the extent the lands between the Indus and the Sarasvatī are seen to have done.

When Videgha Māthava of the Satapatha legend started, accompanied by his family priest the Rṣi Gotama Rāhugaṇa, upon his eastward trek across the river Sarasvatī, he did not find the country "very uncultivated and very marshy" until he had crossed the Sadānīrā, which in the days of the authors of this Brāhmaṇa was the river

which divided Kośala from Videha. This river must have been the present Gandak or another river to the west of it (Satapatha Br. I. 4. 1. 14). The legend makes Videgha "burn his way" over land and water across this tract between the Sarasvatī and the Sadānīrā till he came to this latter river which the legend states "had not been crossed by Brāhmans in former times," because "it had not been burnt across by Agni Vaiśvānara". The other side of the river, according to the legend, was "very uncultivated", because "it had not been tasted by Agni Vaiśvānara". Videgha Māthava too, like the Brāhmans who

68 Sāyana, taking his cue no doubt from the lexicographers, identifies this river Sadānīrā with the present Karatoyā which would bring the dividing line between the Kośala and Videha countries (of the days of the Brāhmaṇa) to the border of the Bogra district. Sadānīrā is mentioned in the Mahābhārata (Sabhā 20, 27), along with the Gaṇḍakī and as lying to the west of it, as one of the rivers which Kṛṣṇa, Bhīmasena and Arjuna crossed on their way to Jarāsandha's capital in pursuit of the advanture which ended in Jarāsandha's death. It looks as if Indo-Aryan writers came to apply this name to the first unnamed river for the time being to the East belonging to these parts and flowing from the Himālayas towards the Gangetic valley. Verses 26-30 of the chapter will bear full quotation:

कुरुभ्यः प्रस्थितास्तेतु मध्येन कुरुजां जालम् ।

रम्यंपद्मसरो गत्वा कालकूटमतीत्य च ॥

गन्डकी च महाशोनं सदानीरां सथैवच ।

एक पर्व्वतके नद्यः क्रमेनेत्या वजन्तते ॥

उत्तीर्व्य सरयूं रम्यां दृष्ट्वा पूर्वां श्च कोशलान् ।

श्वतीत्य जग्मुम्मिथिलां, मालांचर्म्मयवतीं नदीम् ॥

श्वतीत्य गङ्गां शोनञ्ज त्रयस्ते प्राङ्मुखास्तदा ।

कुशचीरच्छदा जग्मुमांगथम् के त्रमच्युताः ॥

ते शखद्गोधना कीर्यामम्बुमन्तं शुभद्गुमम् ।

गोरथं गिरि मासाध दृदशुमांगधं पुरम् ॥

preceded him, did not burn across this river, but he made the "very uncultivated and marshy" country on the other side of it his "abode". In the days of the Brāhmaṇa, however, this country also was found to be well cultivated, "because the Brāhmaṇs had caused it to be tasted (by Agni) by sacrifices".

What must not be inferred from this account is that "burning" meant reclaiming jungle or swamp by the application of fire, supposing the latter kind of land did admit of such treatment. Videhgha Māthava certainly did not, for the very first time, reclaim in this way (as indeed he could not physically have found it possible to do) the whole intervening tract between the Sarasvatī and Sadānīrā, "burn his way" here too "across the earth and the rivers" though he did. Nor can it mean that he as a Kşatriya took political possession of this tract for it is clear from the legend that he crossed over to the other side of the Sadanīrā and made the country on that other side his "abode." By the same token, he did not reclaim the territory on the other side of the Sadanīra, which at the date of the Brahmana was found "very cultivated," or take political possession of it. All he presumably did was, with the assistance of his chaplain. to give his new "abode" to Agni Vaisvanara to taste. 60 This "burning through" and "giving land and water to Agni Vaisvanara to taste" meant nothing more nor less than performing Vedic-Aryan vainas by the settlers for themselves. To suggest then, as Weber has done, that the Videgha-Mathava legend signified the progressive extension eastward of Brahmanical worship and civilization (which is just

for the legend however gives the credit for doing even this not to him but to the Brähmans; and according to its literal language, it is really not Videgha, but Agni Vaiśvānara himself, whom he could not hold in his mouth, who starts burning along (apparently on his own account), Videgha and his Purchita following in the rear.

another expression for political and religious conquest and conversion by the Vedic Aryans of all these tracts and their peoples) is really to foist on Videgha Mathava and Gotama Rāhugana and their kind the very modern motives of the European missionary and the European political pioneer of the 19 century A.D. I can easily understand European scholars who wrote in the heyday of the "Bible and Sword" movement seeing in Videgha and Gotama a sort of primitive Rhodes-Livingstone combination; but that does not make their diagnosis of this legend any the less ridiculously erroneous. The country in which Videgha settled with his Purohita was "very" but not quite unculti-The territory between the Sarasvatī and the vated. Sadānīrā must have been well cultivated, if not very well cultivated, and occupied. There is no room in the legend for the supposition that the land to the east of the Sarasvatī up to and beyond the Sadānirā was virgin land which the Vedic Aryan immigrants reclaimed and made the home of new Aryan visas of the pure-bred variety. All that the legend is capable of meaning is that colonies of Vedic Arvans carrying with them their own mode of worship for themselves were gradually straying into these lands and settling amongst the indigenous Vrātya population without overt opposition from them.

On the other hand from the Baudhāyana story previously considered it can be clearly gathered that at the same or at a later period (which latter is what is more likely) mass conversions of Vrātyas were taking place simultaneously in Kuru and Pāńchāla. This occurrence, it can hardly be doubted, took place in post-Ātharvaṇic

<sup>70</sup> Aupaditi Gaupālāyana Vaiāghrapadya who comes over from Kuru to convert the Pāfichāla Vrātyas obviously finds himself already anticipated and fore-stalled by Gandharvāyana Bāleya Āgniveśya the Pāfichāla anūchāna.

times. The Kuru Vrātya sthapati was, it appears, not a Rājanya Vrātya: he must have belonged to the indigenous priestly class; for his patronymic Vaiāghrapadya reappears quite often in the Brāhmaṇa literature annexed to names borne by Brāhmaṇs (see Chhāndogya V 14. 1; 16. 1, amongst others, for instances) and Yudhiṣṭhira is seen giving himself out as a Vaiāghrapadya, when he personates as the Brāhman chess-companion to King Virāṭa of Matsya with the name of Kańka. (Mahābhā. Virāṭa Chs. 7 and 32).

But apart from all this, the Pānchāla Rājanya from whom Āruņi Uddālaka Gautama takes his first lessons in the Upaniṣads, Pravāhaṇa Jaibali, whom Švetaketu the conceited but for the time being humbled son of Āruṇi describes in anger as the rājanyabandhu and for perhaps the same reason for which Sūtas and Māgadhas came to be designated brahmabandhus<sup>71</sup> (namely, because they were all converted Vrātyas who had not taken to the Aryan samskāras, and not blue-blooded Aryans), marks the country of Pānchāla down, by reason of its being his domicil, as Vrātya country by original affiliation which later (but before Pravāhaṇa's time) had become Aryanised by the facile operation of the conversion Vrātyastoma.

Aruni Uddālaka's craving for Upanisad learning furnishes us with other clues leading to the same conclusion.

71 In the Chhandogya Up. VI 1. 1. Āruņi Uddālaka himself is made to employ the term "brahmabandhu" in the following context: Addressing his son the same Švetaketu he says: "My son, follow the course of the Vedic student; for in our family the unlearned is regarded as a brahmabandhu".

The Sūta-Māgadha Vrātya Brāhmans, I have shown, had no call to and did not follow the Vedic Aryan grhya practices, amongst which leading the life during nonage of a brahmachārī Vedic student was, in the case of all dvijas, regarded as of prime importance. See supra p. 102 n.

The Kausitakyopanisad shows him as going for light to another raianyabandhu, one Chitra. He it is again who leads five grhis, all महाशालाः (owners of many houses) and महाश्रोत्रियाः (highly learned in the Srutis), who had come to him for initiation into the mysteries of the Atman and the Brahman, to one whom he considers to be a better Upanisad teacher. Two of these orhis bear the patronymic of Vaiaghrapadya. Like Āruni and Śvetaketu, these Vajāghrapadvas were apparently not people to lay themselves open to being ranked as brahmabandhus. The Upanisad doctor however whom they are taken to is a third rajanyabandhu, one Asvapati, son of Kekaya. These two rajanyabandhus, as well as the two Vaiaghrapadya arhīs whom Uddālaka Āruni leads to Asvapati, carry (with Uddalaka himself) proofs on themselves of having had domicils in the same neighbourhood of Kuru-Pānchāla, for the Vaiaghrapadyas, we have seen, were at any rate of Kuru habitat if they were not also of Panchala. (Chhand. Up. V 11 etc.). The Vrhadaranyaka Upanisad further shows that Uddalaka also frequented the learned assemblies of Janaka at Videha.72

72 From what has been said, it must be clear that I do not feel obliged to concede to Videgha Mūthava the honour of having preceded Janaka as King of Videha, not to speak of his having founded his line. Pro abundanti cautela again, I warn the reader against supposing that the Aŝvapati to whom Uddālaka took his grhīs was ruler of far western Kekaya. He appears from the accounts to have occupied the position of a governor (sthapati) at least, whilst Pravāhaṇa and Chitra were ordinary noblemen of leisure and means. Ajātašatru was apparently the King of Kūšī. Janaka, of course, was a great King of the true Eastern type.

All these were cotemporaries of each other and of Yājñavalkya, the reputed compiler of the Vājasaneyī Samhitā of the Yajar Veda. The three Āranyakas (Kausītakī, Vrhadāranyaka and Chhāndogya) thus reflect an era which corresponded with a very active period of the "Redaction"

There is one other rājanyabandhu, reputed for know-ledge of the Upaniṣads, mentioned in the Āraṇyakas, namely Ajātaśatru, the King of Kāśī (Vṛhad. Up. 2, 1). Kāśī, of course, is to the east of Pāńchāla. Both these circumstances fix Kāśi too as a land formerly Vrātya but already Aryanised before Ajātaśatru's time by the conversion (mass) Vrātyastoma.

My inference that the Kuru, Pāńchāla and Kāsī tracts at any rate did not entertain original Vedic Aryan viŝas, but Vedic Aryan colonies only as permanent guests is further confirmed by the fact that the Royalty which their princely houses affected was of the typical Eastern variety. They exhibited too a marked predilection for the Royal yajñas for which Kṣatriya Rājanyas as such, unless they were imitating Eastern Royalty, would feel no concern.

The Yādavas of Śūraśena however were clearly quite another type of Rājanyas. They had no Sovereign King. The so-called "kings" are merely heads of clans. One of them, Kańsa, having married Jarāsandha's daughters, with Jarāsandha's backing, had for a season arrogated to himself the powers of an Eastern Monarch, but had failed to make good this position and paid for his ambition with his life owing to the persistent hostility of his Kṣatriya kinsmen. Jarāsandha revenged Kańsa's death at the hands of the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas by investing the Śūraśena capital city of Mathurā and later overruning the whole country, in consequence of which the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas sought safety in flight to the sea-coast, where they established and so fortified the city of Dvāravatī, that from behind its ramparts even women could, according to Kṛṣṇa,

movement. The picture they present bears out the Renascence character of that movement, and connects itself with and completes the one found outlined in Chapters 61 and 62 of the Vayu Purana, previously noticed; pp. 121-122 supra.

offer resistance to a besieging enemy. (Mahābhā. Sabhā 14; Harivamsa, Viṣṇu, 34—35).

It is entirely Kṛṣṇa's power of organisation, tact and diplomacy which at this critical period enabled him to hold his naturally fractious following together and with it to offer sustained resistance to the organised and powerfully supported onslaughts of this mighty monarch. Kṛṣṇa ultimately even got the better of Jarāsandha, but by what far-reaching schemes of diplomacy and guile, will be narrated later. Kṛṣṇa's was, I believe, the first and last successful experiment in pooling together and concentrating for defence and attack the scattered forces of discordant Aryan clan-units, therewith to offer resistance to a power which, in ordinary circumstances and unaided even by the allies it had impressed to its service, would have scattered these unorganised units like chaff.

On the other hand it is easy to understand Jarāsandha's pertinacity in pursuing his scheme of revenge for so long after the death of his son-in-law. He was aiming at a territorial empire which would exercise undisputed sway over the whole of Āryāvarta. According to Kṛṣṇa's own account in the Sabhāparva (Ch. 15.24), he had carried eighty-six of the hundred kings of this land captive to his capital city (after annexing, that is to say, their territories to his own). Sisupāla and others of his following he had reduced to the position of governors and generals. All that remained for him to bring his policy to a successful issue was to break up this Vṛṣṇi-Yādava robbers' nest, for to Eastern Rājanya eyes it looked but slightly removed therefrom.

And it may be affirmed too that Kṛṣṇa himself in his heart of hearts was convinced that the Vṛṣṇi-Yādava confederacy was far indeed away from his own ideal of a civilized and civilizing community. It was not the warning A23.

which the fate of Kansa held out before his eyes, which alone induced him to decline the crown of the Yadavas, when in the height of his power and prestige the grateful Vrsnis had repeatedly offered it to him. The Yadava confederacy, he knew, was bound to be shortlived, even if it should survive his own life-time. Its salvation as a community lay in one and one direction only, that of absorption in the empire of a territorial Sovereign ruling by divine right, who commands his subjects' allegiance as due to him by such right, and administering for the benefit of them all the Varnaāsrmadharma which, so far, his people had shown but little disposition to respect or observe. He would be seen later to be shaping his policy ultimately to that end. But just now he was engaged in a death struggle from which the ramshackle clan-confederacy which looked up to him as its leader had anyhow to be saved, if it was to live and play its part in the empire to come of his dreams.

It is remarkable that in this long-drawn feud, waged with equal pertinacity between Kṛṣṇa on one side and Jarāsandha on the other, both the royal Houses of the Kurus and the Pāñchālas, and of King Virāṭa of the Matsya country, all the Eastern Kings and many even of the Western ones are seen to be ranged on the side of Jarāsandha and actually participating in the investment of the city of Mathurā under Jarāsandha's generalship. These Royal Houses, it is perfectly clear from the Harivaṃśa account (Hariv. Viṣṇu 34-35), entertained no natural sympathy for the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas: the reverse appears to have been the case; and it needed all Kṛṣṇa's diplomacy later to draw the Kuru and the Pāñchāla Houses aside and range them alongside of the Vṛṣṇis against this powerful and determined enemy of that race.

The Matsya country adjoined Śūraśena. And yet the picture of its royalty as depicted in the Virāţa Parva

appears rather to establish its marked Eastern affinity, though King Virāṭa is shown in it to have been reputed wealthy only on account of his herded cattle (गोधन).

A very noteworthy feature of the Vrsni-Yadavas which points to their Vedic Aryan origin is, that respect for Brāhmans appears amongst them to have been the exception rather than the rule. Krsna, who from policy desired to keep on the best of terms with the power which sustained the Varna-āŝrama-dharma, had in consequence to make compensation for this serious deficiency by a somewhat extravagant exhibition of his own personal loyalty to the Brāhman order, the younger members of the fraternity being frankly and actively disrespectful.73 Taken all together, one must be blind indeed not to be able to notice almost immediately the diametrical contrast which the Mahābhārata and Hariyamśa pictures of all that appertains to the Vrsni-Yādavas present to everything else in the Epic, which, leaving the Vrsni-Yadava factors out of account, is seen to exhibit a fairly uniform picture of the kind of civilization which flourished in the Vrātya lands of Magadhic affinity and which was quite unlike what prevailed in the country of the Aryan settlements. It is this "incongruity" of the Vṛṣṇi-Yādava portraiture with the rest of the picture that makes it so historically reliable on the whole.

of washing the feet of the Brāhman guests (Sabhā 35. 10). On the other hand, the attitude of the Yādava youth towards Brāhmans of the greatest eminence is typified in the trick they are said to have played upon them when Kṛṣṇa's own son Sāmba, dressed up as a woman, was presented before them and they were solemnly asked to foretell the kind of issue the woman would be delivered of. The trickery was of course detected and punished in right Brāhmanic style. It is not necessary to believe the story in all its absurd details for its acceptance as a true reflection of the general attitude of the Yādava youth towards the Brāhman order (Mahābhā, Mauşala 1. 15.22)

The saga environment being now sufficiently outlined, I begin the story at a point where Jarāsandha of Magadha is found engaged in deadly combat with the Yādava forces now fully organised by Kṛṣṇa. At this moment the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas are still fugitives from Sūraśena and are entrenched behind the walls of their fortified sea-coast city of Dvāravatī, from behind the ramparts of which even women, as already noticed, could offer effective resistence to the enemy.

At this very juncture, however, opportunely for Kṛṣṇa's policy, a feud breaks out between two sections of the Royal House of the Kurus. But to understand how this feud came about, it will be necessary to collect a few facts from the past history of that House.

But I do not yet feel that I have finally set the stage for the play of the very human<sup>74</sup> forces which make up the Draupadī saga.

It must be taken that Brāhmaṇisation had already made considerable progress in the intervening country between the originally completely Vrātya Magadha and the originally completely Aryanised Śūraśena, the country which I have previously described as a kind of "no man's land" in which it would be natural for Aryan and Vrātya institutions to be found juxtaposed without intimate commingling, before the Eastern Neo-Aryanic wave which had developed in Atharva land as the result of the Brāhmaṇ-Rājanya concordat previously outlined had time to pass over it. But pass over it, it undoubtedly did, long before the time when the events of the saga under consideration opened.

<sup>74</sup> The attempt to represent the struggles for mastery between human rivals as a Deva-Asura war transferred from its proper venue to this earth is of course a purely Brāhman-made over-refinement.

It is clear too on the evidence that the Brahmanisation which formed such an important factor of this Neo-Aryanic wave had not had time at this date to work itself completely out in the institutions of this intervening territory. Kuru-Pāńchāla in other words had not been, at the date the saga opened, as completely varnāśramaised as the Mahābhārata and the Harivamsa would have us believe. It is just this circumstance that makes it possible for the historicallyminded to pick up tell-tale "incongruities" presented by incompatible old saga-elements which have found lodgment in the Epic inspite of the best efforts of its Brahman authors to shut them out or at least to sublimate them beyond recognition. The slightest consideration of these "incongruities" will show how ill they fit into the highly Brahmanised varnāsrama matrix which the written Epic was deliberately designed to be. I cannot find any justification in the material presented for supposing that the Draupadi Saga antedated the Atharvanic concordat and synthesis. That is what creates the chief difficulties in the way of isolating the original partly but not wholly Brahmanised saga material. As it was already partially Brāhmanised, to attempt to exclude from it everything which has a Brāhmanic flavour as irrelevant may not unlikely result in emptying the baby itself with the bath.

To return to the story now: Vichitravīrya, King of the Kurus, died without issue. His elder brother, Bhīṣma, had long previously renounced the throne and sworn eternal celibacy to his step-mother Satyavatī, the mother of the deceased, so that the royal succession might pass through her issue and not be intercepted by Bhīṣma and his. How was the royal line to be continued? It was not merely the Aryan necessity of substituting one war-leader for another, of which the Aryan view was that there were as good fish in the sea as out of it. In a country of

Kings who ruled by divine right, it presented quite another problem.

The Dowager Queen Satyavati, under stress of this predicament, now makes a strong appeal to Bhisma himself (contrary to the oath she herself had extorted from him in his youth) to procreate issue on the widows of Vichitravirya by the practice of niyoga, laying equal stress on the two motives therefor, namely, (i) the royal legitimist motive just alluded to, and (ii) the Vedic-Aryan oblation motive:

## शान्तनोर्धमनित्यस्य कौरवस्य यशस्विनः। स्वयि पिगुडश्च कीर्त्तिश्च सन्तानञ्च प्रतिष्ठितम्॥

Mahābhā. Adi 103. 3.

The appeal which proved so effective in the case of Jaratkaru, the Brahman, fails altogether to deflect this Rājanya from his troth (Mahābhā. Adi 103.24). But he justifies Satyavati's commendation of his knowledge of all the Srutis and the Vedangas (verses 5-6) by suggesting that a "superior" Brahman should be requisitioned for this service by the offer of suitable inducements, citing every possible and impossible precedent in support of the proposal. In the course of the colloquy, Satyavatī is persuaded to make a disclosure of her maiden liaison with the sage Parasara and the resulting procreation of Kṛṣṇa-Dvaipāyana Vyasa, (the same who has been made putatively responsible for the "Redaction" of the Vedas, the Purana-Veda inclusive, and who is specially put forward in the introductory section of the Epic as the person whose seal and signmanual were what imparted authority to the entire Noah's Ark collection of every species of legend and didactics in which the Mahabharata in that section is made out be). This Dvaipayana sage appears from the accounts to share with Vasistha and Visvāmitra, also sages of great Paurāņic celebrity, 75 longivity of such phenomenal duration that we of the present century and of the Kali Yuga find ourselves entirely unable to place any credence upon it.

I personally feel constrained indeed to go much beyond. I have to cut out Vyāsa altogether from the part ascribed to him as author of the saga collection in the first place and also as the vicarious perpetuator of the race of Sāntanu in the second. The original Draupadī saga, I venture to affirm, knew nothing whatever of this deus ex machina of the Brāhmaṇised Epic who is seen turning up in it at all convenient and inconvenient seasons and occasions.

I do not feel at all concerned about the identity of the person who was really responsible for the afore-mentioned service in the legitimist cause. What concerns me is the proneness exhibited by this remarkable Royal House to perpetuate the line by the practice of niyoga; as also the general rather unfavourable attitude of the Brāhmans towards this practice. They disapproved of it. Bhīsma, otherwise, would not have been made to resort to such an immense quantity of very specious argumentation to strengthen his proposal. But the condemnation expressed by that intrepid utterer of unpleasant truths, Sisupāla, is absolutely conclusive:

श्राता विचित्रवीर्थ्यस्ते सतां वृत्ते व्यवस्थितः ॥ दारयोः यस्य चान्येन मिषतः प्राज्ञमानिनः । तव जातान्यपत्यानि सज्जनाचिरते पथि ॥

Mahābhā. Sabhā 41. 23-24.

At the time of the composition of the extant Manu Samhita, the practice of niyoga arouses so much hostility in

<sup>75</sup> I might add Parasurama to the list.

the mind of the Brāhman author that he actually goes out of his way to make Vena, that legendary Brāhman eyesore, as the King who was responsible for allowing it, along with the varna-sankara evil, to come into vogue in a world which knew nothing of them previously.

I do not think that the niyoga ever was a practice approved generally by either Aryan or Non-Aryan opinion in Indo-Aryan India, whether at the date of the occurence of the events of the Draupadi saga or before or after. There is no proof of its ever having been any but a casual custom followed here and there. It is proved to have been a custom of the Royal House of the Kurus. The public might not have minded strange customs being followed in Royal Houses. They do not do so even to-day. But proof that they approved of it generally is distinctly wanting.

It nevertheless unfortunately is the case that any practice anywhere observed to have been followed in that country, once it was able to find lodgement in some form or other of written literature, had a tendency in times which were very different from ours to take rank as achara with a possibility of becoming even sadāchāra. I, for one, can never persuade myself that the complete lists of marriage and sonship forms that have found their way into the Indo-Aryan Smrti literature ever represented practices followed at one place at one time, or at different places even at the same time, not to speak of their being universally followed all over the Indo-Aryan country at any one time. The correct appraisement of the value of these lists, to my mind, would be to regard them as museums of curious practices which were got together through the enterprise of some rather pruriently-minded collector. To regard them all as widely followed customs which got into disfavour in course of time through a growing consciousness of their moral obliquity is to misunderstand these compilations altogether.

I feel bound and constrained to cut out the whole Satyavatī-Bhīṣma colloquy and its uncomely issue as Brāhmaṇic elaboration more ingenious than artistic. A parctice which is disapproved is made to take on a sacred ritualistic character and the last trace of doubt and misgiving is caused to be removed by the Veda-Vyāsa counterfeit. Its very perfection as a counterfeit condemns it. The person selected does, for a miracle, turn out to be just the one who is able to satisfy the opposing points of view of both the Dowager and the Regent: for is not Vyāsa at the same time a very "superior" Brāhmaṇ and a "brother" too of the deceased? I only hope that this doubly Veda-Vyāsa-sanctified counterfeit was never made to serve as a precedent in later times.

The niyoga system of procuring issue, I am convinced, was a by-product of the legitimistic obsession which in Indo-Aryan India does not appear to have been confined only to the royal type of mind. I am convinced also that it could never have been an approved practice amongst people who appear from very early times to have been acquainted with an equally effective and less morally oblique method of affiliation, namely, adoption. Niyoga could not have been an Aryan practice; and I can quite understand Brāhman legislators, faced by instances of this practice amongst their Non-Aryan yajamāns, making

<sup>76</sup> Adoption must have been known as a method of legal affiliation amongst the Aryans before their dispersal, it is such a widely followed practice amongst the Aryan races. The Conversion, Vrātyastoma itself had its root in the adoption motive. How can niyoga agree with the Vrātyastoma mentality? A24.

their best efforts to confine its mischief within the narrowest limits. Departures from normal methods in legend or story or even in actual fact in high places have unfortunately always needed to be glossed over or palliated. But to treat such apologetical literary efforts as though they purported to approve or sanction the practice is an entirely mistaken proceeding.

Dhrtarasta and Pāṇḍu, without doubt, were the issue of niyoga practised on the wives of the deceased King but without any special preparatory confabulation of the kind outlined in the Epic. It was, let it be admitted, non-Aryan practice which had survived. The Brāhmaṇs did not approve of it, but it was such a well-known practice followed as of course when necessity arose in the Royal House of Kuru that nobody (least of all the Brāhmaṇs around the Court) could have had any occasion to reason or cogitate about it. The royal House of Kuru had not yet been completely varnāśramised. But the Epic was written to inculcate up-to-date Brāhmaṇised morals; and the absurd and by no means attractive inventions noticed above were the necessary results.

But the indubitable prevalence of this Non-Aryan family custom in the Kuru Royal House furnishes occasion for other inventions scarcely less unlovely but even less justifiable morally and rationalistically.

The Epic has it that all the five sons of Pāndu also (the joint husbands to be of the Draupadī of the Saga) were of kṣetraja procreation. But this time the progenitors (not one only but several) are no mere relations or superior Brāhmans, or both combined, but gods, real Vedic deities, and not the minor ones either, but Yama, Vāyu, Indra and the two Asvī twins (the pair of them)! This, coupled with the manner in which Pāndu is stated to have lost his progenitive efficiency (whence arose the necessity for this

ksetraja procreation) and to have met his death, is such a bare-faced, disfiguring, Brāhman-flavoured hodgepodge that I see no alternative to rejecting it out of hand, not merely because these things never happened (they could not have), but as crude concoctions which never were any part of the original Saga.

I can well believe Pandu (who though younger became heir to the Royal succession according to law superseding his born-blind elder brother, Dhrtarastra) falling so seriously, and to all appearance hopelessly, ill that he had to take leave of and retire from the toils and responsibilities of the Royal office, of his withdrawing accompanied by his still sonless wives (Pṛthā-Kuntī and Mādrī) into a salubrious hill-tapovana for health's sake; and then recovering from these ailments sufficiently to be the actual father of as many as five lusty healthy sons. I can well believe that Dhrtarastra meanwhile had entrenched his position as King, blind as he was, to such effect, that Pandu found himself compelled to prolong his exile until his death; and that it was only after his brother had passed from the land of the living that Dhrtarastra felt sufficiently safe to admit Kuntī and the five boys into his household as dependent relations only. I can well believe too that hostility was aroused against them in the minds of Dhrtarastra and his sons only after Kṛṣṇa (who was a brother's son of Kuntī, the mother of the three elder boys) had worked them up to a realisation of their rights as the lawful heirs of Pandu, and that to the point of demanding the whole of their patrimony or at least a substantial share of it from the Kauravas. I can also believe that after the quarrel had made some headway, the legitimacy of the Pandavas came to be questioned; and truly, when you find the widow of a person, circumstanced as (when he retired) Pāṇḍu was, return home after many years' absence and present before the world not one but five strapping lads as the issue from the loins of her invalided (and now deceased) husband. the matter is naturally made the subject of ill-natured speculation and comment by persons who have an interest in making them. Assuming that this very likely thing is what in fact happened, one can understand the reason why the authors of the Epic (whose partiality for the Pāndavas and their cause is open and undisguised) should avoid all allusion to it, and at the same time pro abundanti cautela seek to cover up the traces by some acceptable theory of ksetraja procreation. The most natural to suggest would have been, of course, to assign the credit of actual fatherhood to some superior Rsi denizen of the tapovana to which Pandu had retired, seeing that the Epic had made him, by way of preparing the ground, hold long confabulations with the holy men concerning ways and means for procuring children whom he could claim as his own without taking physical responsibility for the proceeding. But neither law nor propriety would sanction the vicarious procreation by even a superior Brāhman of five hefty sons in succession, each competent to do all that is required of a son. This I conceive to have been the real origin of the cock-andbull story that figures in the Epic of gods, real gods, being made by mantras, derived (only those gods knew how) from a holy Brāhman again, to come down and perform this obliging service for Pandu.

On the other hand, so transparently chaste and steely austere Kuntī's deportment and demeanour throughout the course of the Epic narrative appear to be, that I for one shall be sooner prepared to believe that she, Kuntī, never existed than that Karṇa was the issue of her maiden amours with any creature however high-placed (let him even be the Sun-god) or that her other sons and Mādrī's twins

(whom she cherished and brought up with even greater care and motherly solicitude than she found necessary to spend on her own children) were not Pāṇḍu's sons in fact as well as in law.

For all the above reasons, I feel constrained to exclude as a purely Brahman-made accretion the whole episode of Pandu's meeting his death in the manner stated, of the conveyance in state of his corpse to the capital and of the obsequial ceremonies on it being performed there. Of Mādrī's entering the funeral pyre of her husband, I cannot but be profoundly sceptical, seeing that not one of the widows left by the multitude who fell in the Great War is seen to have followed this excellent practice. Their necessity was undoubtedly greater than Madri's could have been. The privilege of self-immolation is no doubt accorded to the innumerable wives of Vasudeva. But the number of Vasudeva's wives (16,000) is such a plain Vaisnavite fabrication that all extravagant statements concerning these wives again may be safely relegated to the same category. From the evidence furnished by the Epic itself, I am unable to conclude that at the date of the Saga widow-burning had come into public favour to any extent, if it all. It seems to me that the Brahman poet, having needlessly involved Madri in responsibility for Pāndu's death, felt constrained to provide further for her offering to atone for it by immolating herself on the burning pyre of a husband whom, I verily suspect, she had in fact predeceased. The reason for this suspicion is the great tenderness Kuntī is throughout seen lavishing on her step-sons. She must have got them all to herself when they were still very young, to be able to do so as she does. The tenderness she is seen constantly exhibiting towards them cannot be accounted for by any mere sense of duty undertaken or obligation incurred, by anything in other

words less compelling than her having acted as their de facto mother from their very infancy. It would be wrong to be more specific, but Madri's death at childbirth itself is, in the circumstances, by no means an unlikely supposition.

I meant no disparagement to Krsna's character when I presumed that he it was who incited the Pandavas' designs upon the Royal throne of the Kurus. It would have been entirely contrary to his nature to have suffered such fine fighting material as the Pandava brothers appeared to be (relations by blood too of the great race of Vrsnis) to live and die as poor relations of the rabble crew of Dhrtarāstra's numerous children. And if behind this action he had been nursing schemes of annexing the Kuru forces led by his cousins to those of the Vrsnis for offering resistance to the super-powerful Jarasandha, I cannot see that he was contemplating anything which would deserve condemnation as un-Ksatriya-like or immoral from any point of view of sane and just politics. Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava, I feel entirely convinced, was not the kind of person who as a boy would, in his school, have been awarded the prize for conduct such as pedants and pedagogues approve. He would, I feel, have despised the very suggestion of it. And I should say further that the training in Upanisad Yoga which he is proved to have received from the Angirasa Ghora (Chhandogya Up. III 17) would truly have gone in vain had he failed to do what I am supposing he did. Sufficient reasons have, I hope, been adduced in the previous paragraphs to account for the expulsion or exile of the Pandavas with their mother from Hastinapur and the intense animosity which accompanied it. It was this animosity, provoked no doubt by their own conduct, which must have been responsible for the elaborate and very nearly successful holocaust which was prepared for them in the Jatugrha by their resourceful cousins, with the

connivance of Dhṛtarāṣṭra himself and the cunning assistance of the Yavana engineer and artificer, Purochana. The Pāṇḍavas just managed to get away from the trap through the friendly offices of Bidūra who had scented michief, despite the close secrecy in which the Dhārtarāṣṭras had shrouded their scheme. The childhood's quarrels between the Kauravas and the five Pāṇḍavas as recounted in the Epic bear such abundant marks of Brāhmaṇic poetical decoration that I must give up the attempt to isolate the genuine saga-stuff from it. The Jatugṛha scheme and the escape thereform into Pāṇchāla of the Pāṇḍavas with their mother must, however, have been real survivals of the original Saga.

But before I pass on to the next event in point of time, I must deal with the part Drona is said to have played in the childhood life of the Kauravas and the Pāṇḍavas and with Drona himself as he has been delineated in the Epic.

Before the Pandavas with their mother had parted from Hastināpur and directed their steps towards Panchāla for asylum, the Pandavas and the Kaurava youngsters had according to the Epic allowed themselves to be used by their Brāhman preceptor in the arts and sciences (chiefly in the science of war), this same Drona, as instruments for causing signal humiliation to Drupada, the King of Panchala, and making the latter eat humble pie to Drona. (Drona is stated in the Epic to have been Drupada's childhood's friend and companion whom he Drupada had, in the arrogance of his mature Royal state, sent away when Drona later came to him as a suppliant for employment, as though he Drupada had never even known Drona). As the price of the peace which he was compelled to sue for from Drona, he had been made to part with the northern half of his Kingdom in favour of the Brahman, Wonderful indeed

was this Brahman! Wonderful his birth! He takes his unparallelled knowledge of the science of war as a gift from Parasurāma himself, the famous warrior Brāhman who lives and re-lives as often and as long as Vasistha, Viśvāmitra and Vvāsa, and must be as mythical a Paurānic Brāhman-made bundle of exaggerations as any of these others. Equally wonderful is the origin of the family in which he marries, and amazing beyond belief too the son he begets on his wife Krpī, the celebrated (and absurd) Asvatthāmā! By easy gradations he passes from a saint's miraculously born son to the childhood's companion of a King, a beggar who begs even into his masterly knowledge of the science by which he is to make his living and later rise to fame and even to a Kingdom, an incensed and insulted Brahman with a grievance, a preceptor to the sons of a great Royal House, a General, a Victor, a King! Am I wrong in affirming that he is a pure Brahmanic fabrication foisted on the original Saga which knew nothing of him or his preposterous son, Asvatthama?

One fiction breeds a dozen others. The dressed-up defeat and humiliation of Drupada at the hands of his Brāhmaṇ adversary makes it a poetical necessity, on the part of the Brāhmaṇ author, to provide that Drupada in his turn should get (as a gift from Brāhmaṇs, of course) a son who will square his accounts for him with Droṇa, and a daughter destined in a parallel manner to bring death and destruction upon the House of Droṇa's Kaurava allies. But to allow these children to be begotten on the body of Drupada's chaste consort would have so unduly delayed the scheme of revenge (Droṇa was getting on in years and the Pāṇḍavas had already attained marriageable age), that the miracle-working Brāhmaṇs cause them to come out of the materials of the very yajña through the magic efficacy of which all this was to be accomplished. So are

born (Sūta-Māgadha fashion) Dhṛṣṭadyumna, the son, fully armed and accoutred for the act of revenge; and Kṛṣṇā-Draupadī (she of the Saga) in the full glory of beauteous maidenhood.

The Pāṇḍavas, it will be remembered, were Kauravas and had taken as active a part (Arjuna's, according to the Epic, was the most determinative) as their cousins in the transaction which gave occasion for the special creation of these instruments of revenge. It is none the less the report that had got about of the advent into the family of the King of Pāṇchāla of this fire-brand of a girl who was to deal out death and destruction to the House of Kuru that, according to the Epic, attract them to the Kingdom of Drupada, so that (wise young fellows) they might not be forestalled by others in securing her by the same coup as both ally and wife! Not one single item amongst those just detailed, I presume, could possibly have been a part of the original Saga

The plain fact appears to have been that at this period the two royal Houses of Kuru and Panchala had

77 Having felt compelled to obliterate Drona from the Saga, I do not see any reason for keeping in it this yajña-born son of Drupada, who is only less preposterous than Drona's son Asvatthama. In the original Saga Drupada presumably had no issue other than Draupadi (normally born) and the hermaphrodite Sikhandi, which would be a sufficient reason in itself for Drupada making so much of Draupadī and staking everything in her cause. Polyandry being assumed to have been a custom of the House of Drupada, had this sonlessness, I wonder, anything to do with the five-husband marriage, the Pandavas at the time having still a kingdom to win by their efforts? Was the amalgamation of the two houses of Kuru and Panchala into one Royal House after the death of Drupada one of the objects the parties had in view when they came to form this extraordinary marriage alliance? The truth about it appears to have been completely overlaid by fiction. But the five-husband marriage itself must in any case have been both a fact and an integral part of the original Saga.

A25.

been at variance without requiring a Drona to set them by the ears. The sympathies of the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas were divided, Duryodhana having been Baladeva's favourite and his pupil in the science of wielding the club ( गदा ), and Dvāravatī was many many days' journey off from Vāraṇābata. To be safe from enemies as resourceful and unscrupulous as the Kauravas had proved themselves to be, to Pāṇchāla they must direct their course. The King of Pāṇchāla would be sure to afford them the asylum they so sorely and immediately needed.

Before they reach their destination however, Bhīma, the one amongst the Pandavas who appears to retain ungarbled most of his original Saga traits of character, has a brief love affair with an utterly low-grade Non-Aryan woman, Hidimbā (poor faithful daughter of the soil), whom the Brahman author of the Epic, in the excess of his classprejudice, is unable to describe otherwise than as a Rākṣasī! There never were man-eating Raksasas in India even in pre-historic times, any more than there were the Gandharvas and Yaksas. Whether these belonged to the original non-Brahman Saga and were taken over as found by the Brāhmans or were figments of the Brāhman imagination imposed upon it, is impossible to say with certainty. But inasmuch as the Rāksasas, besides affecting human flesh. are specially spoken of in the Rāmāyana as well as in the Mahābhārata as haters par excellence of Brāhmans and enemies of yajñas, the presumption certainly arises that this Rākṣasa bugbear was the creation of the sacerdotal Brahmanic brain. Hidimba, the brother of this woman, and Baka, another of the same fraternity, both of whom Bhīma sends to the other world, might have figured in some not very favourable light in the Saga, but not in any case as eaters of human flesh. Such is the Brahman author's prejudice against the people of Hidimba's tribe, whoever

they might have been (Bhīma had no such prejudice in any event, nor very keenly either had his brothers), that even the great warrior son of the union, Ghatotkacha, who lays down his life in the Pāṇḍava cause on the plains of Kurukṣetra, it is pretended, had to have his death contrived at the hands of Karṇa, in the manner it took place, by Kṛṣṇa himself, because forsooth Kṛṣṇa knew this Rākṣasa to be Brāhmaṇadveṣin, yajñadveṣin and dharmasya loptā, Kṛṣṇa being even made to say that had he not been thus conveniently taken out of his hands by Karṇa he, Kṛṣṇa, would have had to kill him with his own hands (Mahābhā. Droṇa 178-179).

I find so many and varied Brāhmanic fabrications to jettison from the Ādiparva that in order only to keep my Draupadī-Purāṇa within readable compass, I must pass over a great many of them without any notice whatever.

But before I pass on to the next selected topic, viz, the "Svayamvara" of Draupadī, I take the liberty of offering to the reader an absolutely sure test which will help him to perform this operation himself, though only in the very worst cases. The test is: When any part of the narrative is found to be totally lacking in verisimilitude, and is at the same time seen to imply extravagant glorification of the Brāhman, specially if this be at the expense of some other class, and, even more so if it involves the humiliation of that class, then he may have the recharfee patented as sixteen annas Brāhman-made. The Drona-Drupada episode exhibits all these characteristics. So does in a measure the Baka episode just alluded to.

Now, what is one to make of the famous "Svayam-vara" of Draupadī?

The incontestable fact of Draupadi's marriage with all the five Pāṇḍava brothers leaves me no alternative to

cutting it out altogether as a Brāhmaṇic fabrication, however much to its credit it may be as a poetical composition.

I am by no means casting doubts upon the svayamvara as an institution of wide prevalence amongst Indo-Aryan Rajanyas of the East as well as of the West. Whether it was originally indigenous in the West and later passed into the East or vice versa may be an interesting point for inquiry. It does strike me as being far too savage a ceremony for the Upanisad Rajanyas of the Atharvanic Vrātya land, whereas in Aryan India, it would furnish just one of those occasions for the Ksatriyas from the scattered visas to meet and kill their superfluous time over disputations, bickerings, even blood-lettings, incidentally effecting exchanges of thoughts, practices, opinions and prejudices in one of the several ways which, I have supposed, had contributed to impress the civilization of the mutually independent vis units with a more of less uniform stamp. But truce be to all such speculations, since I am unable to persuade myself that the "Svayamvara" in question ever in fact happened.

I cannot but believe that Draupadi's marriage with the Pāṇḍavas was arranged, without advertisement (at least of the kind which is implied in a svayamvara ceremony) by private freaty, Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava taking a leading, and perhaps the determinative, part in the negotiations. It was a deliberately planned out political marriage. Every other consideration was subordinated to the one and only object of the marriage, namely, the alignment of the Kurus, the Pāñchālas and the Vṛṣṇis on one side in the struggle that was being waged against Jarāsandha. The Svayamvara episode is very fine poetry and deserves for ever to live as such. But it could not have been a fact, or in the

original Saga. One has to read it in the light of what I am going to say now about the marriage itself to be convinced of the soundness of this conjecture.

What tremendous mental exercise has it not cost the Brāhman authors of the Epic to acclimatise this highly incongruous Non-Aryanish compound marriage in their chaste varna-āśrama literature and still without the hoped-for success?

What could indeed be more puerile than to seek to account for this marriage (i) by the necessity which existed of seeing to it that even a casually dropped remark of that "living flame" of a woman ( अधिरवानस्य ), Kuntī (who imagining that her son had brought in food to eat and not a live girl to marry had advised them to divide the same up amongst themselves), was literally fulfilled! (ii) by the apprehension which had to be eliminated that over such a prize girl the Pāṇḍavas might fall out amongst themselves in the way Sunda and Upasunda, the Daityas, did over Tilottamā in the legend; and by a third reason adduced by the author of the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (whom these specious justifications failed to satisfy as they fail to satisfy everyone else), one again which is far too egregeously silly even for reproduction?

The fact is that the Brāhman author of this part of the Epic found himself up against a stubborn piece of the original Saga narrative which had become traditionally so fixed and notorious that it did not admit of exclusion or erasure, against a fact (in other words) which he could neither ignore, explain away nor satisfactorily account for.

Why not then admit at once that the marriage had to be concluded in the way it was, against the wishes it might be of the Pāṇḍavas themselves, but in accordance

possibly with the dictation of Drupada and his kin, because at that time at any rate the marriage was in accordance with the custom of his House, and a group-marriage provided a better guarantee for the success of his plans? Pānchāla bordered on the Hills and it is not at all unlikely that the throne was at that time in the occupation of an invading dynasty whose hostility for the time being to the Kurus (with whom at other times the Panchalas are seen almost invariably to hang together, so far as the rest of the Indo-Aryan literature is able to testify) might well have been due to this very circumstance. All the Mahābhārata account of Drupada hesitating, demurring to, arguing and finally yeilding is, more likely than not, just faked. The only veracious part of it is the evidence it furnishes of Krsna being all there, upon this occasion of the marriage. It is not unlikely that Kṛṣṇa on learning of the Paṇḍavas' flight came post-haste to Drupada's Court knowing full well that, if alive, the Pandavas would be bound to seek asylum with Drupada; and it was he who, for political reasons, brought about this unusual marriage. If there be one feature of Krsna's character which the Mahabharata account of his doings conclusively brings out it is his total freedom from contemporary or indeed any kind of prejudice, and his equally wonderful capacity for bearing down the prejudices of others, should these happen to stand in his way. For amorality of Napoleonic proportions in the Indian Story, one need not look beyond Kṛṣṇa. He was a "mukta puruşa" indeed in that, if in no other, sense. He would be just the person to persuade the Pandavas to strike up this match even against their own sentiments. But although at the time the Mahābhārata came to be written, Kuru-Pānchāla, according to a statement put in Karna's mouth, was a country where the most approved Aryan practices were observed, at the date

at any rate of the events of the Saga, it might have been and apparently was a good deal behind this stage, considering the proneness for resorting to niyoga found in the former principality and the five-husband marriage which admittedly took place in the latter in the teeth of all \$\tilde{sastric}\$ precedents. At that date, it is quite possible, these departures from the strict Aryan mores had not come to be viewed in these still Vrātya-flavoured lands with that aversion which under Brāhmanic schooling came in course of time to be general all over Āryāvarta.

I can easily forgive the Brāhman poet for the interpolation of the fine Svayamvara episode. To have a live heroine in hand of such superb proportions, physically and morally, and to have given her away in a marriage in the hole and corner manner I have suggested even if that was what in fact happened, would have been a serious breach of poetical propriety. And if the real fact had to be suppressed in the interest of the laws of poetry, these laws did certainly also authorise the interpolation of a properly constructed svayamvara. And that is all there is to be said about it in the present context.

If, as I have supposed, the marriage of the Pāṇḍavas with Draupadī was brought about through the active mediation of Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava, it was not the only political marriage this astute politician arranged to attain the end he had in view. Anticipating opposition from his own people, he later connived at the run-away match Arjuna made with his sister Subhadrā whom Arjuna takes with him to Indraprastha after his regular wedding and presents to the mistress of the house, Draupadī, garbed as a gopālikā, in which apt impersonation she looks even more bewitching than in her usual habiliments of a daughter of the nobility. Whenever in the Mahābhārata I strike against anything

which speaks or smacks of Kṛṣṇa or has any visible or tangible connection with him that has a natural appearance (the tale of his 16,000 wives and all that is said about that multitude whether individually or in gross are so far removed from the natural that I reject them altogether as unreliable data for any kind of rational conclusion, positive or negative) except when it appears to be designed to give him the character of a divinity and to glorify him as such (a point to which I shall return) I seem to feel the touch of rock-bottom history. Subhadrā indeed is more thoroughly and completely saga material than even Draupadī upon whose picture, as we have seen, the Brahman poet has not been altogether sparing in his Brahmanising and artistic experimentations. But I have been anticipating matters to some extent. The Arjuna-Subhadra marriage did not take place till after the return of the Pandavas with Draupadi, after they had concluded their marriage alliance with the King of Panchala, an alliance which the Kauravas found it politic not to disregard altogether. They were persuaded to divide their patrimony as a measure of compromise with foes whom they were not now crush. Yudhisthira could convinced they with his brothers and others establish themselves at Indraprastha, and it is here that Arjuna brings for presentation to Draupadī his Gopālikā bride, Subhadrā. however much might all these events have caused contentment in the minds of the disinherited, they clearly did not satisfy the Kauravas. These could not also have satisfied Krsna.

And Yudhisthira too had his weaknesses. After getting into a Kingdom at the price of so much trouble and tribulation, should he not hold a Rājasūya yajña? After all, he had not succeeded to Pāṇḍu's throne; that and everything appertaining to it had been retained by the Dhārtarāṣṭras.

He was really founding a new Pāṇḍava House but even so only as a cadet of the parent Kuru House. If he could only have himself consecrated and annointed as a King in the presence of all the Rājanyas within hail (the Dhārtarāṣṭras included), it might mean a definite step forward towards legitimising his sovereignty by divine and human sanction, in the eyes of the world. He cogitated over it in the true Eastern Rājanya spirit; and finally consulted Kṛṣṇa. And Kṛṣṇa's advice was just what in the circumstances might have been anticipated it would be by any one watchig from outside the game of politics Kṛṣṇa was engaged in playing (and had to, for all he was worth, for sheer self-preservation).

It was futile, he pointed out, to hold a Rājasūya to which all Kings were to be invited so long as eighty-six out of the hundred they knew were lying in durance vile in Jarāsandha's capital. It is he, Jarāsandha, who will soon be celebrating his Rājasūya with these very Kings for sacrificial offerings! Who was there in the land of the Āryas to resist his might in battle? Those of the Vṛṣṇi-Yādavas even, whom he has still failed to subdue or win over to his side, are really fugitives from him to the sea-coast in far-away Dvāravatī. The Rājasūya idea was certainly the idlest of idle dreams so long as Jarāsandha stood overshadowing the Aryan world. 78

<sup>78</sup> The Rājasūya of the Parāṇas is no longer merely the normal consecration ceremony which is to be observed at the coronation of every King. From the nitya ceremony of the Mantras and Brāhmaṇas, it has come to be regarded as an extraordinary naimittiku royal ceremony, depriving the Aśvamedha of that character and relegating the latter to a quite secondary position. This displacement of the Aśvamedha by the Rājasūya was ailed by the later Brāhmaṇa literature making the Vājapeya, with its imperial significance, a ceremony inadmissible for performance after the Rājasūya, and by the invention also of the A26.

Jarāsandha, it appears, was not only subduing the other Kings, he was, contrary to prevailing Indo-Aryan political practice and understanding, annexing their kingdoms to his own, which indeed was the reason for his keeping so many Kings in his capital city as captives. 79 Sisupāla and the other so-called allies of his appear from the accounts to have been his satraps or generals or other similar mandatories rather than feudal vassals or tributaries. The hatred and fear inspired by this unprecedented policy of annexation, pursued as it moreover appears to have been with ruthless determination for years on end, would naturally give currency to stories (unquestionably false) of his cruel disposition, of the plans which

Mahabhiseka ceremony, the connection of which with the Rajasuya I have commented on in another note (Note 29, p 63 supra). All this went hand in hand with the progress of imperialistic ideas which the parcelling out of the land into too many warring principalities was in itself bound to foster in all thoughtful minds (cf. Italy in Dante and Da Vinci's times). In Pauranic times, it is clearly a ceremony to be performed by a King who aspires to be regarded by his fellow-Kings as Raja-chakravartin. Its performance, then, naturally rouses jealousics and rivalries, as Yudhisthira found to his cost. Rama of Kośala, the hero of the Rāmāyana, actually desisted from performing it, and performed the Asvamedha instead, being counselled in that sense by the sage Bharata. Thus an ordinary Royal coronation ceremony came in course of time to be transformed into an imperial one. The VayuPurana would even have it that Prthu himself was consecrated at his Rajasuya by नरोत्तमः (Kings), Ch. 70, 21. (The verse occurs rather casually, and does not really fit into the context in which it is found). See in this connection Eggeling, Satap. Br. Part III, S. B. E. XLI, pp. xxiv etc.

79 The Nīti-sāstra rules counselled the conqueror to reduce the conquered to vassalage. But Jarāsandha was by policy an annexationist. What could he do with the Kings whose territories he had annexed but keep them interned in his capital. The rumour that Jarāsandha kept them for purposes of sacrifice (a rumour which even Kṛṣṇa believed in) must have been false, for Jarāsandha is described elsewhere as in every other respect a virtuous āchāra-abiding King.

he had matured of offering his prisoners as victims at a great thanksgiving sacrifice to be held for victories won, and other like canards which made him pass into oral tradition for a veritable ogre, an impression which is entirely contradicted by even a superficial examination of what written records we find of him in the Purāṇas.

However that might be, the end of it all was an adventure of daring combined with guile in which Kṛṣṇa himself and two of the Pandavas are shown as taking part; and by it they are able to compass Jarāsandha's death in the heart of his capital city of Giribraja itself, without resort to armed force which Kṛṣṇa had already admitted would be of no avail against him. By this act is removed from Krsna's field of operation the only equal adversary who was there to oppose and possibly frustrate his political aims. It is Jarasandha's chivalry, coupled with Kṛṣṇa's disregard of it, which enables this unexpected result to be so easily achieved. The account we read in the Epics of the concluding acts of his life so far from making Jarāsandha out as an ogre or monster presents him in the most favourable light. The description of the entry of the three adventurers into Giribraja is fraught with local colouring and otherwise possesses verisimilitude in a marked degree. Giribraja is a "city of chaityas" and "the flourishing abode of a contented populace of all the four varnas". The whole ensemble points to a more advanced state of civilization and culture than was to be found in the lands which the three adventurers had left behind them. I have cited Krsna's description of the country of Magadha in another context and need not repeat it here. There is in all these descriptions of Jarāsandha and his country just that suggestion of envious regard which shows that the superiority of this land in point of civilization and culture over the rest of Northern India and the superior capacity for governance of its Kings were not open to question. These descriptions point unmistakeably, in prospect, to the Magadha of Chandragupta Maurya of future days, which in itself I take to be corroborative of the historicity of the Jarāsandha of the Mahābhārata and Harivaṃśa story. Chandragupta, it is clear, did not have to take lessons in imperial governance from any Persianised Hellenistic King. Indo-Aryan Imperialism belonged to the soil of Magadha, was indigenous to it, and is racy of it in every account left in contemporary literature.

The coup having succeed beyond expectation, the captive kings were immediately liberated. The Rajasūya ceremony was held, much to the chagrin and inwardly-felt humiliation on the part of Duryodhana and his party, whilst Sisupala by his outspokenness and mad hatred for Kṛṣṇa (it seems both he and Kṛṣṇa were affecting the state and the equipments of "Vāsudeva", an avatāra whose advent about this time had been both predicted and believed in) queered the ceremony itself for Yudhisthira and his brothers. In the result it ended by creating considerable jealousy and ill-feeling towards the Pandava-Krsna alliance, and the Kauravas took full advantage of it to undermine the prestige and power of the Pandavas and to consolidate their own position. Still it would have been necessary for them to have abided for a time before taking decisive action, if only Yudhisthira had not allowed himself to be lured into a trap and caught within its meshes, with wife, brothers and everythying he held and possessed, a situation which any but a confirmed gambler like himself could have easily foreseen and avoided. But it is to this vice and folly of his, again, that we owe one of the finest dramatic situations that could be conceived in the brains

of a poet. I cannot resist the conclusion that this situation happened in fact, and the poet did not have to dream inspired dreams for its conception. The whole description of the truly great "Vastraharana" episode as recounted in the Mahābhārata (with one important qualification to be specified) must be made up substantially of genuine saga material in any event (whether true in every particular to fact or not), poetic embellishments and all.

The Pāṇḍavas are ceremonially invited to Hastināpur where Yudhiṣṭhira is challenged and inveigled into playing a game of dice with the disreputable reprobate and toady, Saubala Śakuni, at which game, he successively stakes his possessions, his brothers, himself and finally his wife, and loses on every single throw of the dice! The younger Pāṇḍavas grind their palms and gnash their teeth in impotent fury, whilst the basest of the Dhārtarāṣṭras give themselves up to indecent jubilation!

Into the seraglio is now sent Duryodhana's emissary and he communicates to Draupadi the fateful issue of the game as well as the command to her, of her and her husbands' new masters, to come to the Assembly Hall and await her new Lords' pleasures there.

The dark-featured maiden with blue-black locks, who even as a bride had the mein and deportment of a goddess born, is now a queen-regnant. But the news is so appallingly trivial, albeit tragic, that for one brief moment she does not believe her ears. Collecting herself immediately however she demands to know who it was that was staked first, herself or her Lord, the King. "Go back and find this out from the gamester!" But Duryodhana is too impatient for parleys and has her dragged by the hair, in circumstances of unspeakable ignominy and shame, before the seated senators by that vilest of the Dhārtarāṣṭras, Dus-sasana. Angry but undismayed, a lioness at bay,

she faces them about, and demands of them the law. She adjures the senators to declare what *dominium* Yudhisthira had over her, after he had staked himself and lost?

Whilst the oldest senators, aghast at the indecency of the whole proceeding, sat dumb-founded before the riddle which confronted them, up rose Vikarna, a preux chevalier of if ever there was one, for all that he was a Dhartarastra. Deriding the Elders with their inexplicable reticence over a question which he should have thought presented no difficulty, he proclaimed his clear unhesitating personal conviction (in which truly he was some thousands of years in advance of his times) that Yudhisthira drunk as he was with the lust of gambling could by no means be regarded a free agent. Besides, how could he alone stake Draupadi when his brothers could clearly claim condominium with him, and that too when he no longer was lord and master of himself? The Princess sans peur et sans reproche (भ्रनिन्दिता) was in his opinion free, as free, that is to say, as when the game began, and must be allowed to go free!

A straight and powerful speech which rings true even to this day, the effect of which Duryodhana by cruelly conceived astuteness sought however to turn by beseeching the Princess to refer her difficulties to Yudhisthira's own self, "that paragon of virtue who had never been known to deviate from dharma!"

Meanwhile sense has begun stirring in the depths of Dhrtarāstra's slow-moving brain. Rebuking his eldest son

१० प्राज्ञसम्मतः is all that his mother Gandhari is able, in her supreme sorrow, to say of him when she is led to view the remains of her dead sons and others in the abandoned battlefield. So he is, even to this day.

for his infamous proceedings, in that he had thereby heaped (as Draupadi had pointed out) indignity not only on herself and the Pandavas but had irretrievably besmirched the honour and prestige of the Royal House of the Kurus, "Child!" he says, "foremost and best of all the brides of my House! take thou from me whatever boon thou desirest, for there be none that I can deny thee". "If so be thy will my Lord", quickly responds the Princess, "then grant thou Yudhisthira his freedom; for hard it will be for his son to be known to the world as dasa-putra". "So be it", rejoins Dhrtarastra, but glad shall I be to give thee still another boon; do thou but ask for it, foremost and best of all the brides of my House!" "Then grant, Lord, freedom to the brothers of Yudhisthira." A third boon, offered in the same manner, is declined with such supreme dignity and grace that unwilling admiration is extorted from even the lips of her most foully scurrilous and malevolent enemy, Karna.

"Never before in legend or story of fair women of yore", Karṇa declared, "had been heard the like of what we have seen achieved by Kṛṣṇā to-day! Truly has she proved herself the vessel whereby the Pāṇḍavas have gotten over the most perilous of floods that has ever confronted the paths of men"!

A true estimate and just! From out of the profoundest depths of anguish and of shame, she rises through the might of her personality alone, triumphant, exalted and resplendent!

It is remarkable how the appreciation of that personality initiated by lips the most chivalrous, passes on to and swells on lips that were less complaisant, breaking forth finally in a paean of superlative praise upon lips which were the most venomous! This, the contagion of virtue, progressively spreading and finally sweeping off

his feet even the most vicious, was the real miracle, not the indefinitely-stretching out and never-to-be-ending single piece of cloth (the eka-bastra which was all the drapery Draupadī wore), a myth for which not Kṛṣṇa but the Brāhmaṇ-Vaiṣṇava poet is to be held (reprehensibly)<sup>61</sup> responsible.

The ascendancy which Draupadī won in the Assembly Hall on that memorable day she retained unabated all her life.

But, for the present, the Pāṇḍavas' sun has set, and they retire into long-drawn exile to atone for Yudhiṣṭhira's folly. Kṛṣṇa's diplomacy suffers corresponding eclipse. Duryodhana no longer bides his time, but makes full use of his opportunities to consolidate his position by good government within and by generous dealings with allies and friends without.

I pass on at once to the Virāṭa Parva. For rapidity of movement and sustained dramatic interest, no Parva can compare with the Virāṭa Parva. But all this gain in poetic quality is at the expense of historicity, if that is what one has been looking for. 2 But beyond the coruscating poetry one does nevertheless get the feel of fact and not only of saga material. The Ajñāta-vāsa is not wholly poetical myth, though how much of it is fact and how much pure poetry, it may be difficult to determine.

<sup>1</sup> I mean, in an artistic sense. Striking right against it, where it occurs, is a miserable experience to most readers, as I have been assured by many. But, of course, all readers have not the same tastes.

e2 I have much the same complaint to make against the Virāţa Parva as certain fox-hunting members of the English gentry are said to have had against the "stinking violets" which threw their dogs off the "scent" of the quarry! The Parva is much too over-laid altogether with poetry to serve the purposes of the history-hunter.

Inconsequential King Virāṭa, the timid stripling prince Uttara, poor-spirited Queen Sudeṣṇā, Abhimanyu's girl-bride Uttarā, must have all figured in the original Saga, and in it drawn presumably from life, so real and human they all appear to be. The Pāṇḍavas of course were playing parts, none playing to such perfection as did Yudhiṣṭhira in his personation of Kaṅka Vaiyāghrapadya. But the dominating personality round which nevertheless turns this contracted little wonder-world of the King of the Matsyas (the very senāpati of which, Kīchaka, a brother of the Queen and by caste a Sūta, is a half-witted mountebank) is still the Queen who (as Sairindhrī) elects to play the part of a lady-in-waiting to a Queen!

In the Udyoga Parva, even Bhīmasena for once is found talking of peace and compromise. If the horrible oath to drink Dus-sāsana's blood and the drinking of it did really form parts of the original Saga (they are in the Mahābhārata), this talk of compromise must indeed be a very bad misfit. But a Saga has the right to be inconsistent. I think on the whole however that this talk is Brāhman didactics, misplaced in the mouth of Bhīma. Bhīmasena, if he did drink Dus-sāsana's blood, thereby proved himself more of a cannibal than the Brāhman authors of the Mahabharata have succeeded in proving Bhima's lowgrade relations by marriage (or cohabitation), Hidimba and Hidimba, to have been. Per contra the two women, Prtha (Kunti) and Draupadi prove true to themselves, alert and unflinching as ever, shattering by their timely intervention the fine-spun skeins of diplomacy and guile which were being woven whilst every preparation was on foot for coming to death-grips. I cannot however persuade myself that the Veni-samhara episode was any part of the original Saga. Draupadī, for all the grandeur of her personality, is no Kriemhild by temperament or training. A27.

But if this too is shown to have been a part of the original Saga I would not quarrel with it. The Veni-samhāra oath like the blood-drinking one has a distinctly saga-ic flavour.

Came the long-drawn carnage on the plains of Kurukşetra wherein the victory finally won by the Pāṇḍavas proves even less grateful than defeat would have been, followed on its wake by the self-exterminating internecine feud which broke up and literally destroyed the Yādava confederacy, before Kṛṣṇa's own eyes, in grief for which he ended a life of unexampled faith in the efficacy of Work directed and controlled by Intellect (Karma with Jñāna) in disillusionment as profound as was that of the Pāṇḍavas after victory.

The consequence to Indo-Aryan chivalry of the complete denudation of its fighting force which followed upon these self-exterminating fraternal feuds was seen in the deplorable capture upon the highway of the womenfolk of Kṛṣṇa's household whom Arjuna was escorting to Hastināpur, by Ābhīra brigands.

One of the main objects of Kṛṣṇa's diplomacy was, as I have previously hinted, to mitigate and overcome the feudal arrogance and aversion to discipline of the fractious Yādava clans under the steadying influence of Varṇaāśrama-dharma to be administered within the Imperial Peace of a Rāja-chakravartin throned at Hastināpur, and he had consistently directed his efforts within the confederacy to weaning his tribe to it, in what he conceived to be in their own best interests (having to that end steadily refused the crown of the Yādavas) at the same time that it would realise his great dream of a single Indo-Aryan Empire ruled by the same Varṇa-āśrama-dharma and enforced by the authority and moral prestige of a Sovereign who ruled even himself by its precepts,

Kṛṣṇa's grandiose scheme of a single varṇa-āŝrama

Empire centred at Hastinapur failed of realisation. But the ultimate purpose of that scheme succeeded perhaps only too well and mainly as the result of his work. Not vainly did he, a Ksatriya, come to be regarded in later ages by Indo-Aryans in general as an Avatara of God, and to be ranked as the greatest of the Avatāras by Brāhman propagandists of the Sree-Krsna cult more than by any Kşatriya. His work and personality must have left a profound impress upon the thoughts, imaginations and emotions of his contemporaries, so that his deification (in the necessarily degenerate and lifeless era that followed his death) did not probably meet with serious opposition and did not also presumably take a very long time in maturing; and it was this deification following on his death which finally achieved what he had failed to bring about in his life-time, namely, the spreading and deep-rooting of the varna-āśrama idea all over Indo-Aryan land, 88 and that too in the absence of that political unity which Krsna had vainly striven to establish as a necessary means to that end. The political union of Indo-Aryan India under a single ruler became a fact for the first time in the reign of Dharmāśoka, a successor of the very Jarāsandha whose annexationist policy proved so highly repugnant to contemporaneous Indo-Aryan political practice (Kṛṣṇa's own amongst others') that he had to be weeded out as a

यो गतिर्धम्म्युक्तानामगतिः पापकर्म्मणाम् । चातुर्व्वगर्यस्य प्रभवश्चातुर्व्वगर्यस्य रक्षिता ॥ चातुर्व्विद्यस्य यो वेत्ता चतुराश्चम्यसंश्रयः ।

> Vāyu Pur, 97, 36-37 Also Harivaṃśa I 40, 38 39



<sup>18 3</sup> In the VäyuPurāṇa litany devoted to recounting the greatness of Viṣṇu in this his Sree-Kṛṣṇa Avatāra occurs this passage which exactly represents what Kṛṣṇa stood for in the eyes of his contemporaries and successors, att in it meaning, of course, "positive law":

general pest. It was just here however that Jarāsandha saw further than even Kṛṣṇa; for Jarāsandha discerned what Kṛṣṇa failed to see that feudal vassalage did not make for an Empire-state, which is what Kṛṣṇa too had been aiming at. But the Empire which Kṛṣṇa was striving to establish was an Empire which would be ruled by Varṇa-āśrama-dharma and not by the despotic will of an autocrat like Vena.

Kṛṣṇa's dream of an Indo-Aryan Empire ruled by law was realised still more paradoxically by a Buddhistic King, a circumstance which led to a temporary overshadowing of the very Varṇa-āśrama-dharma for which Kṛṣṇa had lived and died by its most serious rival, the Buddhistic religion and scheme of life. That scheme however was less removed from the varṇa-āśrama ideal than it is generally believed to be, specially by people who have accustomed themselves to viewing Indo-Aryan historical developments in the light of analogies derived from European history.

With Kṛṣṇa dead, I feel I have very nearly arrived at the end of my journey. The remaining fragments of the Saga are soon picked up.

Much of the detailed description of the Kurukṣetra battles is such that it could have been written only by persons who never saw what a battle was like. But genuine saga deposits are discernible here and there, and of this description is the Abhimanyu episode, the pitiless doing to death of this lion's cub who does not seem to know what fear of death is even when death is hugging him closely around from all directions; and the relentless pursuit by father and uncle, infuriated now to madness, of that one amongst the adversaries who was held chiefly responsible for foully crushing out of existence this still youthful but stark impersonation of indomitable Kṣatriya battle-lust.

The Geetā episode obviously could be nowhere in the Saga. Incomparably the most amazing tour de force in the field of literary composition, it was composed, of course, not in the heat of the battle-field, but in cold blood, in the sanctum of a great Vedāntist who has chosen to remain nameless, and so highly successful has been this incredible essay in self-effacement that not only has the authorship remained unknown, but the work itself has been made historically unplaceable. The Śānti and Anuśasan Parvas are by the same token entirely outside the Saga. They are, it needs hardly to be stated, out and out Brāhmaṇ-made didactics. The Aśvamedha, Āśramabāsika and Mouṣala Parvas contain much that has the genuine saga ring.

In connection with the last-mentioned Parva, which brings us to the end of Kṛṣṇa's (by all tests) great and eventful life-history, I desire to make one final observation.

If only the passages which are expressly directed to affirming the incarnation of the Supreme Being in Kṛṣṇa and his identity with the Ruler of the Universe be rigorously excluded, the statements in the Mahābhārata, wherever they occur, concerning Kṛṣṇa himself, his kith and kin (barring his wives) appear to me (after making due allowances for poetical license and poetical exaggerations) to be on the whole those which have least suffered from Brāhmaṇical manipulation. They must be derived from genuine Paurāṇic tradition which later was to undergo such deliberate and systematic perversion for devotional purposes, in the Harivaṃśa to some extent, but chiefly in the Viṣṇu and the Bhāgavata Purāṇas. 4

<sup>\*4</sup> Whether the tale of Krana's 16,000 wives is to be regarded as a religious or poetical exaggeration, I shall not undertake to say. That

of the Mahābhārata appears to me to be extremely human, superhuman only in his political aims and purposes and in his singular freedom from contemporary or indeed from any kind of prejudices, one truly mukta (as I have said before) but only in a Napoleonically amoral way. For substantial confirmation of what I say, one has only to go over Duryodhana's catalogue of charges against him and the reaction it had on him as set out in the 61st Canto of the Salva Parva. So far indeed was Kṛṣṇa in advance of his times that it would have been impossible for a mere poet of the age when the Mahābhārata came to be written to have drawn him from imagination alone. The model must have been furnished by life and the picture carried over by tradition till it got itself impressed in written literature. Even if I had doubts about the reality of Krsnā-Draupadī, I can have none whatever of the reality of Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava.

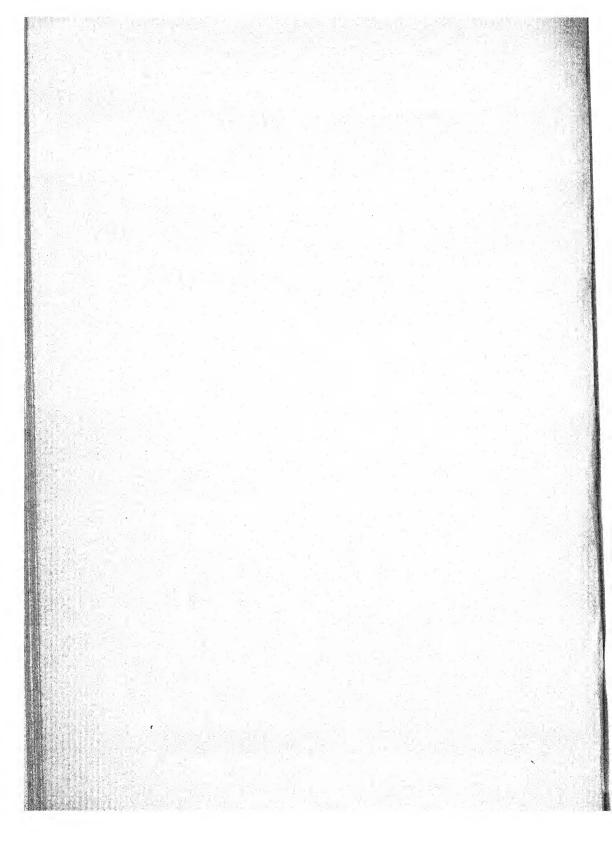
The two concluding Parvas, the Mahāprasthānika and Swargārohanika are too fine and sophisticated to have in any measure formed the stuff of a Sūta-made Saga. They must also be put out of it.

To sum up, Draupadī in my judgment was, for all the fiction in which her birth remains enshrouded, a real person, and drawn also in the main from genuine Paurāṇic material. In brilliance, force of character and personality, she was seen to transcend and excel the other characters in the drama as far as the Sun may be said to transcend and excel the dependent planets and comets. But Kṛṣṇa, the single exception to this rule, appeared to be even more massive, forceful and brilliant than herself. The

it takes unmeasured "license" with facts is beyond question. Everything bearing on his wives has to be as ruthlessly rejected as everything else which bears on his divinity.

Mahābhārata world was indeed dominated by a Double-Star, Kṛṣṇa-Kṛṣṇā. The similarity in names was just a coincidence. But there appears to be something singularly appropriate in the relation in which the Mahābhārata makes them stand to each other, that of sakhā and sakhā, friends and equals.

I have designated this Saga "The Draupadī Saga." With equal propriety it might have been styled "The Saga of Kṛṣṇa-Mādhava and Kṛṣṇā-Draupadī". Jarāsandha was too soon removed from the scene to enable us even to conjecture what possibly might have been his place in that wonderful world in the epoch-making years that followed on his death.



## Appendix B.

## Texts and Comments.

Readers of the Book, to many of whom the original sources may not be readily accessible, will find the following selection of texts useful for reference. I have added some notes which for one reason or another could not be conveniently incorporated in the Book or the foot-notes.

§ I. Distinguishing marks of the members of the Vrātyagaņa, as found in the texts of the Brāhmaņa Books (Pañchaviṃśa and Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇas).

### (a) PB XVII 1.2:

हीना वा एते हीयन्ते ये त्रात्यं ( त्रत्यां ) प्रवसन्ति न हि त्रह्मचर्य्यश्चरन्ति नक्षित्रवणिज्याम् ।

#### PB XVII 1.9:

गरिंगरो वा एते ये ज्ञह्याचश्चन्यमञ्चमदन्त्यदुरुक्तवाक्यन्दुरुक्तमाहुर-दण्ड्यन्दण्डेण व्रन्तश्चरन्त्यदीक्षिता दीक्षितवाचं वदन्ति ।

I have for reasons stated in the Book (p. 12) favoured the reading चरन्तः दीज्ञिताः in place of चरन्त्यदीज्ञिताः (which is the reading in the Bibliotheca Indica print) as being more consistent with the other related texts. The passage ये ब्रह्माचञ्जन्यमञ्जमदन्ति is so obviously at variance with गरिगरः which immediately precedes it, that I cannot but suppose that this passage too may have got mutilated. If, instead, it had read ये (व) ब्रह्माचञ्जन्यमञ्जमदन्ति or ये ब्रह्माचञ्जन्यज्ञाञ्चमदन्ति, the sense of the reading would have agreed perfectly with

गरगिरः, and would indeed have been explanatory of it. for it is hardly to be supposed that the Vrātyas were literally understood to have been in the habit of only eating poison or whatever else was considered unfit for consumption by Aryans. On the other hand, it would be quite natural on the part of a commentator of Sayana's times to seek to make the texts fit with ideas which through the Puranas had come to be associated with Raksasas. This could be so easily arranged by dropping the negative from the passage in question as I have supposed it to have been done, and adding it before दीन्निताः and further altering चरन्तः into चरन्ति (Rāvana and other Rāksasas are made to speak Sanskrit in the Rāmāyana), that it is difficult not to suspect that this is exactly what happened. Sayana's reading of the texts is taken by him as indicative of the Vrātyas having been people who विपरीताचारानाचरन्ति। The term विपरीताचारान has to be understood in the highly sophisticated Pauranic sense above indicated to accord with that reading. My reading, on the other hand, would describe the Vrātya as he was in life, and without any Rāksasic implication, just the way in fact he would have impressed his far less sophisticated Aryan contemporaries. The text as I read it would further mean that the Vrātya after conversion would both eat ब्रह्माचञ्जन्यमन्नम् and speak दीनितवाचं, as was to be naturally expected, though he would equally naturally complain that the दीन्तितवाचः (the words of mantras) were rather hard to pronounce in the way demanded. My reading finally agrees entirely with the related texts of the Jaiminiya Brahmana and of the Baudhāyana Sr. Sūtra.

PB XVII 1.14:

डण्णीपश्च प्रतोद्ध ज्याह्र्गोडश्च विपथश्च फलकास्तीर्णः कृष्णशंवासः कृष्णवलक्षे अजिने रजतो निष्कस्तद् गृह्पतेः । PB XVII 1.15:

वलृकान्तानि दामतृपाणीतरेपां द्वे द्वे दामनी द्वे द्वे उपानहौ द्विपं हित्यान्यजिनानि।

PB XVII 1.16:

एतद् वै ब्रात्यधनं यस्मा एतद्दद्ति तस्मिन्नेव मृजाना यन्ति ।

PB XVII 1.17:

त्रयिखंशता एयखिशता गृहपतिमभिसमायन्ति.....।

PB XVII 2.1:

अथैप पट् पोड़शी ये नृशंसा निन्दिताः सन्तो ब्रायां प्रवसेयुस्त एतेन यजेरन्।

PB XVII 2.2:

अभिपूर्व्वेण वा एते पाप्मना गृहीता ये नृशंसा निन्दिताः सन्तो ब्राह्मां प्रवसन्ति यत् षट् षोङ्शानि स्तोत्राणि भवन्ति तेन पाप्मनो ऽधि निर्मुच्यन्ते ।

PB XVII 3.1:

अर्थेष द्वि षोड़शी ये कनिष्ठाः सन्तो त्रात्यां प्रवसेयुस्त एतेन यजेरन्।

**PB XVII 3.2:** 

हीना वा एते हीयन्ते.....ये कनिष्टाः सन्तो ब्रात्यां प्रवसन्ति ।

PB XVII 4.1:

अर्थेप शमनीचामेद्राणां स्तोमो ये ज्येष्टाः सन्तो त्रात्यां प्रवसेयुस्त एतेन यजेरन

With reference to the surgist in text 14, Dr. Caland justly remarks that the meaning of the term was unknown even to the Sūtra-kāras and their authorities. This remark is as well applicable to the vipatha; and I have preferred to use the Sūtra-kāras' treatment of this latter "equipment"

of the Vrātya (to illustrate this very point as well as for other reasons) in my Book (see "vipatha" in the General Index for page-references). I therefore exhaustively reproduce in this Appendix the texts only on the vipatha, paying no special attention of that kind to the other equipments. The texts of the Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra have lent themselves for reproduction in full by reason of their brevity. These and the PB. texts extracted will serve to give the reader a fair idea of the kind of gentry for whose admission into the Aryan communion the Conversion Vrātyastoma was originally designed.

## (b) JB II 222:

दिन्या वै त्रात्या ब्रात्यामधावयन् वुधेन स्थपतिना.....मुहान्तीव एते ये ब्रात्याम् धावयन्ति.....ये ब्रात्याम् धावयन्ति वाचा हि अमेध्यमव्रतं ब्रदन्ति । तेषाम् इन्द्रियम् वीर्य्यम् वाचोऽपक्रामति ।

These texts like the Baudhāyana texts to be extracted in the next Section are entirely in accord with my reading of PB XVII 1.9, as I have already remarked (p. 12 n).

Note too that Budha is spoken of here as having been sthapati of the दिन्याः (देवाः in PB, देन्याः in Baudhā Śr. S.) बात्याः before even he found occasion to officiate for them at the stoma.

[Dr. Caland's reasons for dating the JB before the PB do not commend themselves to me. But as the question does not arise for consideration in relation to any part of my thesis, I reserve that point for the present.]

# § 2. Vrātyastoma Sūtra texts.

(a) The Baudhayana Vratyastoma Texts. Baudha. Sr. S. XVIII 24:

ब्रात्यस्तोमेन यक्षमाणो भवति ते राजनि वा ब्राह्मणे वा प्रतिब्रह्मिच्छन्ते मासाय वर्त्तवे वा ते यमभिसंजानन्ते (?) तं स्थपति कुर्व्वन्ति स एषां व्रतानि चरित.....यत् कृष्णवासः कृष्णतृषं परिधत्ते दीक्षितवसनस्य तद्रू पमथ .....यत् कृष्णमुष्णीषं धारयित दीक्षितोष्णीपस्य तद्रू पमथ यद्यर्भमयैर्वाण विद्वस्तित्य्यन्वं धारयित दीक्षितदण्डस्य तद्रू पमथ यद्वात्यवादं वदित दीक्षित-वादस्य तद्र पमथ.....प्रतोददण्ड एव यूषः....रथोपस्थो गार्हपत्यः..... यद्वाहरित सा याज्या यद्शन्ति स वपट् कारो......यद्भिक्रोशन्ति स उद्गीथस्ते य एवमेतं यज्ञकतुं परोक्ष्मपुरेत्य प्रत्यक्षं नोपेयुः।

Baudhā. Śr. S. XVIII 25:

यथा दीक्षितावकीणां विच्छिन्नसोमपीथा अनाश्यान्ना एवं स्युः...... तेषां ये ऽनाहिताप्रयस्ते यथागृहं विपरेत्याप्नीनाधाय त्रयिक्षशता त्रयिक्षशता दक्षिणामि स्थपतिमुपसमायन्ति तेषां ब्रह्मवन्धुरमागधो मागधवाक्यो ब्रह्मवन्धुरपुंश्चलू पुंश्चलूवाक्या जरत्कद्रथो.....वा......तदेतद्वात्यधनं समवशान्तं दण्डोपानहं शामूलाजिनं रथे तिष्ठन्सुब्रह्मण्यः सुब्रह्मन्यामाह्वयति दक्षिणानां काल एतदेवास्य भवत्यृत्विजो दक्षिणा विभजन्ते।

Not only, as has been pointed out in the Book (p. 89), would this Sutra preposterously foist on the fallen Aryan reprobate the Magadha or Pumschalu brahmabandhu (though a personation only of this creature might be made to serve if the genuine article should, as in most cases they were bound to, prove unavailable), the vipatha also is made to appear at the ceremony, but "personified" into the "owner of an worn-out car" (जरत्कद्रथः). brahmabandhu provision allowing the Magadha Pumschalū to be personated by a fake, this one too showed consideration on the part of its designers. Since only by a rare coincidence would the Aryan reprobate be found also to be the owner of a car, and both car and owner had therefore to be hired for each occasion, it was just as well that the car should be an worn-out one. And all this complicated subterfuge had to be adopted because the Māgadha, the Puṃśchalū and the car happened to be mentioned in close association in Paryāya 2 of the Vrātya Book of the AV as the appurtenances of the Eka-Vrātya; and room therefore had to be found for all of them in the ritual scheme: the temptation to bring rituals to agree with the texts of a Veda was, to a writer of a Brāhmaṇa, really irresistible! The glosses inserted in between, in the Baudhāyana texts in question, do not improve matters at all. I have omitted these glosses because I am more interested in Baudhāyana the witness than in Baudhāyana the glossator. The glosses, the reader may examine and appraise for himself, in Dr. Caland's edition of the Sūtra Work.

For these perversions of the Vrālyastoma rituals, the reader must not understand, from the language that I have been led to use here and in the Book, that I have been laying the responsibility upon the Sūtra-writer himself or indeed on any particular individual. These scholastic refinements must have been evolved in some School or Schools, and the Baudhāyana writer must unquestionably have been recording traditions which had crystallized into these shapes in some School. As a witness of these and other happenings (natural as well as preposterous) I have found this Sutra-kāra's evidence quite invaluable. My sense of the high historical value of almost everything he has written and registered upon this subject of the Vrātyastomas, I have already recorded in the Book (see p. 93).

Baudhā. Śr. S. XVIII 26:

स एष ज्येष्ठानामग्निष्टोम.....एष एव कनीयसाम्.....तेन हैतेन मरुत ईजिरे तेषां विष्णु स्थपथिरासाथो हैतेन दैव्या ब्रात्या ईजिरे तेषां वुधः सौम्य स्थपितरासाथो हैतेन कुहत्रहाणां पुत्रा हेजिरे तेपामोपिदिति गौंपालयनो वैयाव्रपद्य स्थपितरास तेन हेष्ट्रा पञ्चालान्त्रात्या अभिप्रययु स्तान्ह पितर उनुर्मा पुत्रका पञ्चालान्यासिष्टोपवादिनो वै पञ्चाला उप वो विद्यन्तिति। तान्हानाहत्येव प्रययुस्तेह केशिनो दाल्मस्योपवसथमाजग्मुस्तान्ह श्वोभूते विहिष्पवमानं सर्पतो अन्वालेभिरे पवित्रं वै विहिष्पवमान आत्मानं पविष्यामहं । इति वदन्तो अथह पञ्चालेषु गन्धर्वायणो वालेय आग्निवेश्यो अनूचान आस तान्ह सह सर्पतः पप्रच्ल के सर्पन्तीति वयं मस्त इति तेपां वः क स्थपित रित्यहं विष्णुरित्योपिदिति गौंपालयनो वैयाव्ययः प्रत्युवाच। यत् कि चकर्थ कस्तचचारेतीतिह परोक्षमत्रत मनुनिर्दिदेशेति। तान्हो वाचाविदुपो उपावादिष्माप वो न्हुमह इति पिता वै तत् पुत्रानुपावादीदिति हैनमुचुः पापीयसी ते प्रज्ञा भविष्यतीति तथा हैवास ततो हवा एतत् पञ्चालेषु गन्धर्वायणा वालेया आग्निवेश्या पापायिता इव महाकुलं ह तत् पुरा वभूव। स यो ब्रात्यमुपवदेदेवमेवैनसुपवदेदथ यो ब्रात्योऽलं प्रतिवचनाय स्यादेवमेवैनं प्रतिब्रु यात्।

Aupaditi Gaupālayana Vaiāghrapadya appears from this text itself to have been sthapati of the Vrātyā priestly caste of the Kuru country; and not gṛhapati of a whole kingdomful of peoples and castes as the Eka-Vrātya convert of the Vrātya Book was. The fact noticed in the Book (p. 174) that the title Vaiāghrapadya is later found invariably to be annexed to Brāhman names is quite in accord with the above view of the text. Though this may appear to be superfluous, I wish to guard against being understood to have suggested that because the Conversion Vrātyastoma was a group ceremony, it invariably meant the Aryanisation at one stroke of whole country-sides or none at all. The former would necessarily be an exceptional occurrence which would be brought about only by very exceptional circumstances.

(b) The Latyayana Vratyastoma Texts.

Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.9:

विषयश्च फलकास्तीर्ण इति प्राच्यरथो नास्तीर्णो विषयः।

cf. Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.16.

Lālyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.10:

कम्प्रमिश्राभ्यामधाधतराभ्यां युक्तः स्यादिति शाण्डिल्यः।

cf. Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.17.

Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.11:

याभ्याम् काभ्याश्वाश्वाश्यामधतराभ्यां वेति धानश्वयः।

Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.27:

ते स्वयस्त्रिशत भृत्विग्मोद्युः।

cf. Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.27-28.

Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.28:

ब्रात्येभ्यो ब्रात्यधनानि ये ब्रात्यचर्याया अविरता स्युर्बद्धवन्थवे वा मागधदेशीयाय यस्मा एतद्ददति तस्मित्रे व मृजा यन्तीति ह्याह ।

cf. Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.22-26,

Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.29:

ब्रात्यस्तोमीरिष्टा त्रीविद्यवृत्ति समातिष्टेयुः।

contr. Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.29-30.

As noticed in the Book (P. 6), Lātyāyana concentrates on the Conversion Vrātyastoma, the non-conversion varieties being barely touched upon, and only for an incidental remark on a matter which might just as well have been omitted. The reader, if he is curious may look up the references for himself (Lātya. Śr. S. VIII 6.3-4).

The dakṣiṇā of 33 cows required in PB XVII 1.17 to be brought to the grhapati is omitted in the Baudhāyana account of the Conversion Vrātyastoma, but is duly provided

for in the account which follows of the नृशंसनिन्दित Vrātvastoma for fallen Aryan reprobates. I have suggested in the Book (pp. 9 and 11) that the Conversion Vrūtyastoma was by origin an adaptation of the नृशंसनिन्दित stoma, and the daksina provision was undoubtedly there in the latter when this happened. But as Brāhman rivijas would not officiate at the converts' ceremony the daksina had to go to the Vratya grhapati who took (as the Baudhayana text states with perfect clarity) entire responsibility for the conduct of the proceeding. The Baudhayana text having however (as I have stated) unnecessarily introduced the Magadha, the Pumśchalū, the Jara'kadratha and the Vrātyadhana into this stoma was forced by the very logic of the situation thus created to provide that at the division of the daksina the Vratyadhanas (such as they were) were to go to one or other of these creatures, the cows only, the daksina proper, going to the rtvijas! Lātyāyana, however, though he was dealing only with the Conversion Vrālyastoma, had no scruples about the Brahman rivijas obtruding themselves into even this stoma for appropriating the cows, the Pratyadhanas with their vicious burden of sins being very prudently diverted at the same time (according to precedent previously set in the Baudhayana Sutra) to a different order of recipients, namely, either Vrātyas still continuing in the unregenerate state or to inferior so-called Brāhmans like the Magadhas.

Dr. Caland commenting on PB XVII 1. 16-17 has remarked that the thirty-three cows too must go to the taker of the Vrālyadhana. Was he really assuming that Brāhmans officiated and it was they who took both the cows and the equipments (with, of course, the sins of the converts' past heretic state, with which the latter had been expressly "charged" by the PB)? This seems likely, since he appears also to have been of opinion that a

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grhapati was quite uncalled for at a ceremony which was not a sattra. Such a view however is scarcely borne out by the texts of the Brāhmana, which in my opinion mean just what they say, namely, that the cows went to the grhapati, there being no other rivijas concerned in the ceremony, the Vrāiyadhana being equally obviously meant to be given away at the end of the ceremony to whosoever would care to take them, it being understood that the receiver would be taking over at the same time the sins of the converts' past heretical condition.

If the Latyayana Sutra in question could by any means be supposed to have stood for contemporary ritual practice, it would certainly have marked a great advance in ideas; for it would have shown that by his time the Brāhmans had entirely got over their former fear of the taint of heresy pursuing daksinās issuing from utter heretics. The daksinas would still be brought to the Vratya grhapati (it being so ordained in the Brāhmana), though Brāhman rtvijas would now be actively and willingly participating as officiating priests, the result naturally being that the grhapati after this change would be serving only as a convenient conduit-pipe to collect and pass on the daksinas and those only to the Brahman rivijas! Since however the Latyayana Sutras clearly demonstrate that neither the Sūtra-kāra nor the authorities cited by him (some of them very old ones) had any precise notion as to what some of the articles named in the Brahmana as the Vratya's equipments stood for in actual life, the more reasonable inference to draw undoubtedly is that the Conversion Vratyastoma at any rate had long since become entirely obsolete (see p. 8 of the Book); and that the Sūtra-kāra had simply slipped into what would be a very natural error on his part through being called upon (apparently only as a literary duty) to write upon institutions which he no longer

was in a position adequately to visualise or comprehend. [The Lātyāyana Sūtra-kāra, nevertheless, I must add here, leaves on me the impression of having been a rather shrewd and observant person, much more so than the Baudhāyana Sūtra-kāra and those others that came after him].

#### (c) The Kātyāyana Vrātyastoma Texts.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4,3:

ब्रात्यगणस्य ये सम्पाद्येयु स्ते प्रथमेन यजेरन्।

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.4:

द्वितीयेन निन्दितानृशंसाः।

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.5:

तृतीयेन कनिष्ठाः।

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.6:

ज्येष्ठा श्रतुर्थेन।

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.7:

यो नृशंसतमः स्याद् द्रव्यवत्तमो वा ऽनूचानतमो वा तस्य गाईपत्ये दीक्षेरन ।

The text not only prescribes a grhapati as a sine qua non for all the stomas (which is absurd enough), for the nrŝansa-nindita stoma in particular it actually ordains the selection of the most reprobate amongst the excommunicate for this office! Such noble height of scholasticism has to be seen only to strike the observer with dumb amazement. The text nonetheless is of value for showing not only that Vrātyastomās in any form had ceased to be practised at the date of the Sūtra-kāra, but that the very object and purpose of these stomas had been very nearly completely lost sight of.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.16:

फलकास्तीर्णो विषथः।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr, S. VIII 6.9.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.17:

अश्वाश्वतराभ्यां कम्प्राभ्यां युक्त स्यादित्येके।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.10.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.24:

मागधदेशीयाय ब्रह्मवन्धवे दक्षिणाकाले ब्रात्यधनानि द्युः।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.28.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.25:

अविरतेभ्यो वा ब्रात्यचरणात् ।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.28.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.26:

तेष्वेव मृजाना यन्तीति श्रुतेः।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.28.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.27:

त्रयस्त्रिशतं त्रयस्त्रिशतं दक्षिणा दद्युः।

Cf. Lātyā. Śr. S. VIII 6.27.

Kātvā. Śr. S. XXII 4.28:

द्विगुणा स्थपतिरित्येके।

This last text would mean a great step forward if the text really represented anything that actually happened. The grhapati, according to it, is not (as Lātyāyana would apparently have him be) the passive conduit-pipe for transmitting the dakṣiṇās received from his Vrātya following to Brāhmaṇ rtvijas now eagerly participating in the rite for those same dakṣiṇās, he has to give them on his own account, and not just the standard number prescribed only,

but double that number! From the very highly paying business it must apparently have been originally, the office of the Vrātya gṛhapati was coming to be the reverse of profitable to its holder! (Had this dakṣiṇā provision, copied and adapted from the other stomas, ever really had any indeed but a purely notional existence? I, for my part, entirely doubt it). Luckily however for the gṛhapati, the Sūtra-kāra had only heard about it from somebody else, of whom no doubt again, as in his own case, the wish alone must be taken to have been the father to the thought. These very excesses of the Sūtra-kāras make it plain that so long at least as the Conversion Vrātyasloma was in active operation, the Brāhmaṇs took no part in it as officiating priests; and that the ceremony had gone quite out of use when they were writing about it.

Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.29 : ब्रात्यस्तोमेनेष्ट्रा ब्रात्यभावाद्विरमेयुः । Kātyā. Śr. S. XXII 4.30 : व्यवहार्य्या भवन्ति ।

Compare and contrast the last two texts (29 and 30) with the Lātyāyana Sūtra VIII 6. 29. Entirely creditable as an essay in generalisation (besides that they stress the secular motive which ऋदिकाम and स्वर्गकाम do not directly do), these two texts are as innocent of historical significance as the Lātyayana text is charged with it (vide Book, pp 6, 9-10).

Upon a consideration of the entire body of texts hitherto extracted, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that the  $Vr\bar{a}ly\bar{a}stoma$  ritual practices as embodied in the PB texts never did have any of the developments outlined in the Sūtra Works above cited otherwise than upon paper only !

The Neo-Aryanism of Vrātyaland, it is clear, only needed to be given time to disseminate and spread itself over the country of the Redaction-Renascence (the Madhyadeśa) to deprive the Conversion stoma of any further raison d'etre and reduce it to a dead letter; and as regards the other stomas the simpler Ātharvarnīc prāyaśchittas would not take long to put them too out of commission, even if the innumerable caste groups now in existence should be suppposed to have lacked potency for absorbing the waifs and strays from the higher caste groups (see p. 10 of the Book).

### (d) Āpastamba Vrātyastoma Texts.

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 4:

ब्रात्यानां प्रवासे ब्रात्यस्तोमा उक्थ्या रथंतरसामानः। द्वितीयो वाग्निष्टोमः।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 5:

डब्णीषं प्रतोदो ज्याहोडो रथो विषयः फलकास्तीणो ऽधोऽधतरश्च युग्यौ कृष्णशंवासः कृष्णवलक्षे अजिने रजतो निष्कः।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 6:

तद्गृहपतेः।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 6. 7:

वलुकान्तानि दामतूषाणीतरेषाम्।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 8:

द्वे द्वे दामनी भवतः। द्वे द्वे उपानहौ ।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 9:

द्विषं हितान्यजिनानि ।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 10:

त्रयिक्षशता त्रयिक्षशता गृहपतिमभिसमायन्ति ।

Āpast. Śr. S. XXII 5. 11:

ता दक्षिणा भवन्ति।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5, 12:

अपि वा षट् षष्ठिं गा वन्वीरन्।

Apast. Sr. S. XXII 5. 13:

अथो खल्वाहुर्यदेवैषां सातं स्यात्तद्द्यु स्तद्धित्रात्यधनमिति ।

Āpast. Śr. S. XXII 5. 14:

षट् षोड़शी निन्दितानाम् द्वि पोड़शी कनिष्ठानाम्। ऊर्द्धस्तोमो ज्येष्ठानाम्। चतुः षोडशी सर्वेपाम्।

As pointed out in the Book (p. 66n), a new idea is introduced under cover of the words बात्यानां प्रवासे which take the place of बात्याम् प्रवसन्तः or बात्याम् धावयन्तः of the Brāhmaṇa texts. The plural form बाल्यस्तोमाः which follows appears to suggest that the new idea was being held applicable to all four varieties of stomas. This of course would altogether obscure the whole classification scheme for historical examination, were one to miss the one outstanding fact which it establishes, namely, that the Apastamba writer had discovered a new possible use for all these obsolete ceremonial forms, and it was the only one which could make them fit into the order of ideas which had become current in his day; and this was that Indo-Aryans sojourning in a Vrātya country must make suitable expiations for departures from orthodox āchāras necessarily involved in sojourns. The idea authoritatively ombodied apparently caught on and is still widely prevalent in the Hindu world of India.

The old familiar Vrātyadhanas, it should be noted, are conscientiously enumerated in these Āpastamba texts, though how these could still form the equipments of an Indo-Aryan of a later age who had been simply sojourning

in foreign parts, must pass all understanding. Scriptural writings of all ages and places have however invariably proved rather perverse material to writers of commentaries, luring them on as they must do, first, into inconsistencies, from inconsistencies to sophistries, from which the next step inevitably is to scepticism, and from scepticism finally on to criticism and free-thinking.

These Vrātyadhanas had in fact been so firmly nailed down to the Vralyastoma rites by the PB texts quoted above, that they could not be taken apart by any commentator who had these PB texts in view. Apastamba writer adhered to the PB texts not only in this matter, he kept close to them also in not making these "equipments" go, as the Baudhayana, Latyayana and Kātyāyana texts do, to brahmabandhus (male or female, Magadha, Sūta or Videha). The dakṣiṇā, he is afraid, may be doubled, but not in the case of the grhapati only, as the Katyayana writer had heard. Lastly, as pointed out in the Book, p. 10, the Vrātyastomas of Apastamba get wedged in between the वाचः स्तोमाः on the one side and the ग्रादित्यानां प्रयति and the ग्रामिभू on the other (all ordinary svargakāma or prosperity-getting ceremonies) in the same Kandikā.

## (e) The Śānkhāyana Vrātyastoma Texts.

Sankha. Sr. S. XIV 69. 1 and 2 :

ब्रात्यस्तोमाः। बसवोह स्वर्गकामास्तपस्तप्त्वे तान्यज्ञक्रतृनपश्यन्त्रात्यस्तो-मान्। तैरिष्ट्वा स्वर्गमापुः। तै स्वर्गकामोयजेत।

Sankhā. Sr. S. XIV 72, 1 and 2:

मित्रावरुणयो रिधनोर्वसृनां मरुतां साध्यानामाप्यानां विश्वसृजां भूतकृतां ज्येष्ठानां मध्यमानां कनिष्ठानां च । चतुर्दशस्तोमः। As there are other kinds of rites interposed between § 69 and § 72, one would not know that the latter were Vrālyastomas if one were not expressly so told by the commentator (Varadattasuta Ānartīya). Upon § 72, his commentary is: मित्रावरुषयो रक्षिनो बाल्यस्तोमः। चस्नां बाल्यस्तोमः। मस्तां बाल्यस्तोमः। साध्यानां बाल्यस्तोमः। चय्नां बाल्यस्तोमः। चिय्यस्तो बाल्यस्तोमः। स्थानां बाल्यस्तोमः। चय्नां बाल्यस्तोमः। च्यानां बाल्यस्तोमः। चय्नां बाल्यस्तोमः। चय्नां बाल्यस्तोमः। कियानां बाल्यस्तोमः। कियानां बाल्यस्तोमः। प्रवेशनां बाल्यस्तोमः। (Quite an enviable style of commentary writing, so far, if this were not followed by:) प्रायक्षित्यार्थं प्रत्येकं कर्तांच्याः।

As within these ten (if they are correctly designated " Vrātyastomas") is included the Basus' Vrātyastoma dealt with in § 69, how is one to correlate this text and text 72, and the different objects assigned to the rites, by the Sūtra-kāra in § 69 (svargakāma) and by the commentator in § 72 (प्रायक्रित्यार्थ)? The texts of § 71 deal with an उत्कान्तिरात्र rite of which the Sutra goes on to say: इन्द्राविष्य वे स्वर्गकामौ तपस्तस् तं यज्ञकतुमपश्यतामुत्कान्तिम्। This is the idea also of § 69; and I cannot but hold that the Sūtra-kāra meant to convey similar ideas by § 72. The rites dealt with in \$ 69 though expressly designated बात्यस्तीमाः have obviously no Vrātya implication at all of any kind. So whether these rites and the ones dealt with in § 72 were all called "Vrātyastomas" or by any other like "proper name" could really be of no consequence whatever to But neither the ones nor the others were. it is clear, प्रायश्चित ceremonies, whatever the commentator may say about them. They all were svargakāma ceremonies: and the most natural explanation of the association of the names of the several gods mentioned in § 69-72 with the rites specified (by whatever name designated) is what I have offered in the Book (p. 93), namely, that by performing any one of them, the worshipper would be qualifying for admission into that part of the Vedic heavens which A30.

specially constituted the "abode" of the god whose stoma it professed to be by name.

All these ceremonies not being Fratyastomas in fact and reality (whatever distinguishing designations they might have gone by in the worlds of the Sūtra-kāra and his commentator), the commentator does not at any rate err when he observes, upon the rites of § 69, that any one of the three varnas might perform them यः कश्चितत्रे विश्विको The designation "Vrātyastoma" is really a <u>ऽधिकारी ।</u> misnomer as applied to each and all of these ceremonies. All touch with the original "Vrātya" ideas had in fact got lost when the Sankhayana Sutras came to be written, though the name "Vrātyastoma" somehow or other survived but only to be misapplied to some or all of these ceremonies, which had thus no relation whatever to, and still less were late developments of, the original Vrātyastomas.

#### § 3. A Note on Grhapati (Sthapati).

Dr. Caland was inclined to regard the grhapati as an irrelevancy, in the Conversion Vrātyastoma ekāha. I have, on the other hand, found in this feature of it the keystone of the arch upon which a great part of my thesis has been made to rest. A few additional observations on the grhapati (and the sthapati, the two stand for practically the same figure in the Vrātyastoma ceremonies) will therefore. I hope, not be considered as thrown away.

The derivative meaning of the word "grhapati" of course is "the householder." But the grhapati who figures as the principal sacrificer at vaitanic sattras is not a householder in the literal sense. When the original house-units had attained sufficient cohesion to give rise to other forms of associations, such for instance as a College of Priests, the grhapati idea had to be given an extended denotation

by including within it the principal figures or leaders of these non-family associations. These leaders were more like official representatives than householders, but they represented these non-family groups at vaitānic sacrifices just as completely as the householder represented the family at family ceremonies. The group representation idea underlay both positions, the groups being only differently constituted internally.

It should be clearly understood at this point that all ceremonies had not necessarily to be group ceremonies. There were ceremonies which concerned the individual as such, whether he was a member also or not of a family or a college. Most kāmyeṣṭhi, prāyaśchitta and quite a variety of other ceremonies had no group significance whatever and did not need a grhapati at all.

So far, I have had in view cases where the sacrifices are being performed by the *grhapati* or the individual, as the case may be, directly; and not vicariously through the mediation of an offliciating priest or priests.

When the Great Royal ceremonies are admitted into the Vaitānic sattras, many priests come to officiate at such ceremonies, led in all such cases by the grhapati of this group; and one thus sometimes finds the office of the grhapati at such ceremonies duplicated in the Books. We thus read of accounts of great Earthly Kings who, being translated into heaven, are seen stepping into the position of the grhapati of the gods at sessions of yajñas held by the latter, performed though they must have been and were through the mediation of brahmarsis led by Vrhaspati as their grhapati or brahman priest.

Every Vaitānic sattra performed by colleges of Brāhman priests, whether for themselves or on behalf of others, would thus have at least one grhapati, the leading Brāhman

sacrificer and might (when the sacrifice was being held vicariously for others) have even two.

The Conversion Vrātyastoma text of the PB in the first place made a point of having the ceremony performed through a grhapati because it was a group ceremony for gaṇas. Secondly, as in the case of the Śyena Yajna of the Vrātīnas, it made a specific point of having the leading member of the gaṇa itself consecrated as the grhapati, because no Brāhman would officiate at such ceremonies and there would be nobody to take up the grhapati's position even vicariously.

The use convertibly of the designations "sthapati" and "gṛhapati" for the principal sacrificer in Vrātyastoma contexts makes the position even clearer. "Sthapati" was the appropriate designation of the leader of a group which was not literally a household. It was applied to a headman of a village, a governor, a caste-leader and so on. "Sthapati" would indeed be an apter term to hit off the leader of a Vrātyagaṇa than "gṛhapati". Budha Soumya has been everywhere described as the sthapati of the Daiva Vrātyas (a non-descript crowd, like any human Vrātyagaṇa), and it appears from the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa texts that he was regarded (on account of his pre-eminence) as the sthapati of this group, even before he had occasion to lead them at the performance of the stoma.

So long as the non-Conversion Vrātyastomas had for their subject the initiation or re-initiation of individual Aryan-born backsliders from orthodox āchāras, a gṛhapati or sthapati would strictly speaking be an utter irrelevancy at such ceremonies. But so soon as these ceremonies came to be assimilated with the common svargakāma rituals in which a stad rature: was utant (so that the Vrātyastoma designation itself for these ceremonies became a

misnomer), it undoubtedly became possible for whole crowds of normal "traivarnikas", hankering for this or that svarga, to perform these and like ceremonies in groups of their own choosing, thereby creating the necessity for a grhapati, though here again ordinarily the presence of the leading Brāhman rtvik (there were sure to be a number of them in view of the plenitude of daksinās coming in) would render the further appointment of a dummy lay grhapati or sthapati a superfluity. Whether this ever happened in fact is more than I would be prepared to vouch for. Such study as I have been able to give to the Fratyastoma texts inclines me on the other hand to the opinion (several times expressed in the Book) that the Sūtrā Works' refinements upon the original Vrātyastoma ritual texts (as they had been handed down to them in the Panchavimsa Brāhmana) were as a whole scholastic and notional only, and did not represent practices which actually came into vogue at any time either before or since. The Sūtra texts (with but rare exceptions already indicated) are seldom found to be reminiscent of the days that preceded the Brahmanas.

I cannot conscientiously close this note on the grhapati idea without recalling the reader's attention to a text from the Brahmānḍa Puraṇa which I have used in the note under pages 64-65 of the Book. Dakṣa, I have there stated on the strength of this text, was induced to recognise Rudra (after the punishment he had received from Rudra) as grhapati and Tēvara. This is the only meaning that can be put on the text as it is found printed in the Calcutta (Baṅgbāsī) edition of the Brahmānḍa Purāṇa (Chap. 31 śloka 70):

ज्ञात्वा गृहपतिं दत्तो ज्ञानानामीश्वरं प्रभुम् । समस्तेनेष्ठ यज्ञेन सोऽयजद्दैवतः सह ॥ The Vāyu Purāṇa version makes nonsense of the whole text by making "गृहपति दत्तः" in the śloka read "गृहपति दत्तं" and may confidently be dismissed as erroneous. But the Bombay edition of the Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa (Chap. 13, śloka 76) makes the first line run:

#### ज्ञात्वा गृहपतिर्दन्तो यज्ञानामीश्वरं प्रभुम।

which not only makes sense, but better sense perhaps than the line as given in the Bangabāsī edition. Dakṣa performing all kinds of yajñas with this numerous Deva following behind him would be truly acting as the grhapati of the Devas at all these functions. The designation of grhapati would undoubtedly fit him more nearly than it would the "Lord of the Yajñas" who was the object of all this worship.

§ 4. The Videgha-Māthava Legend of the Satapatha Brāhmaņa.

Śātapatha B. 1. 4. 1. 10-17:

घृताच्येति । विदेघो हमाथवो ऽप्तिं वेश्वानरं मुखे वभार । तस्य गोतमो राहुगण त्रनृषिः पुरोहित आस । तस्मै ह स्मामन्त्र्यमाणो न प्रतिशृणोति नेन्मेऽप्तिवेश्वानरो मुखान्निस्पद्याताइति ॥१०॥ तमृन्मिह्नं यितुं द्रश्ने (mantra spoken by Purohita omitted)॥११॥ स न प्रतिशुश्राव (mantra spoken by Purohita omitted)॥१२॥ स ह नैव प्रतिशुश्राव (mantra spoken by Purohita omitted) अथास्य घृतकीतिवेवाप्ति-वेश्वानरो मुखात् उज्जञ्वाल तं न राशाक घारियतुम। सोऽस्य मुखानिस्पेदे सइमां पृथिवीं प्रापादः ॥१३॥ तिहं विदेघोमाथव आस सरस्वत्यां स तत एव प्राद्धं दहन्त्रभीयाये मां पृथिवीं तं गोतमश्च राहुगणो विदेघश्च माथवः पश्चाह्र-हन्त्रमन्वीयतुः स इमाः सर्वा नदी रतिददाह । सदानीरेत्युत्तरा द्विरेनिधावित तां हैव नातिददाह । तां ह स्म तां पुरा ब्राह्मणा न तरन्त्यनतिद्धानिमा वैश्वानरेणेति ॥१४॥ तत एतिहं । प्राचीनं वहवो ब्राह्मणा स्तद्धाक्षेत्रतरिमवास स्नावितरिमवास्विदितमिमा वैश्वानरेणेति ॥१४॥ तदुहैतिहं । क्षेत्रतरिमवास स्नावितरिमवास्विदितमिमा वैश्वानरेणेति ॥१४॥ तदुहैतिहं । क्षेत्रतरिमव

ब्राह्मणा उ हि नूनमेनचन्नी र सिष्वदंत्सापि जघन्ये नैदाघे समिवैव कोपयित तावच्छीता नितद्ग्धा ह्यग्निना वैश्वानरेण ।१६।। स होवच विदेघो माथवः काहं भवानीति। अत एव ते प्राचीनं भुवनमिति होवाच। सैषाप्ये तिर्हि कोसळविदेहानां मर्यादा तेहि माथवाः ।१७।।

The legend was introduced to illustrate the efficacy of a certain mantra formula for stirring up the power of Agni. It is unfortunate that exactly those portions of the story to which the narrator, for his own purposes, was attaching the greatest value have to be rejected as physically impossible. But the rest of the story has a genuine ring. It is the story of a whole Ksatriya household, Brāhman priest and all (not, be it noted, a tribe or an army), trekking across (for them) a strange country which is seen to have already entertained an appreciable number of worshippers of the Vedic gods on to a country to which Videgha and his chaplain would apparently be the first to carry that worship. The legend, as I have stated in the Book (pp. 172-173), provides but the scantiest basis for supposing a sweeping mass-migration of Aryan peoples. lured thereto by their "longing for the beautiful tracts of Hindustan" (the country by the way where Mathava and the priest Rahugana settled was actually seen to be "marshy and very uncultivated"). Neither Videgha nor the Arvan Brāhmans who preceded him are credited in the legend with having themselves brought any part of the country to the east of the Sarasvatī under cultivation. Videgha and the Brāhmans moreover were the intellectuals of the vis and could not have done this themselves, even if they had wanted, besides that the Aryans as a people (as compared with the Eastern riverine Vrātyas) were, as has been seen, rather sorry cultivators and reclaimers of unprepared soil. All that the legend as recounted was meant to convey was that it was owing entirely to the

power of the Brāhmans' prayers and sacrifices to Agni Vaiśvānara that the countries to the east of the Sarasvatī became blessed and bountiful. The story told was the story of a ritualistic miracle, not the casual narration of a successfully pursued country-wide agricultural operation. Of ruthless filibustering leading to political annexation, the legend gives no hint whatever.

The immigrants in Māthava's new "abode" are specifically designated "the Māthavas" and not the "Videhas" whom the Aryan settlers despise to the point of assigning to them a varṇasankara origin of pratitoma parentage (Manu S. X 11). The legend establishes no connection whatever between Videgha Māthava and the ruling house of later days of the Kingdom of Videha, made famous for all times by everything that is implied in the great name of Janaka, the greatest of brahmavid Kings known to fame before Asoka. [For references to contexts in which Janaka's name appears in the Book, see "Janaka" in the Index.]

[At p. 176 of the Book, I gave the Vṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad reference only to the Gārgya-Bālāki Ajātaśatru colloquy, the much fuller Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad reference having been accidentally omitted. The Kauṣītakī account of the incident describes Bālāki as a resident of the Uśīnara country who had, before he offered to instruct Ajātaśatru in the Upaniṣad Vedānta, travelled over the following specifically mentioned countries, namely, Matsya, Kuru-Pānchāla and Kāśī-Videha, Ajātaśatru himself being of Kāśī. These were the countries of the Redaction-Renascence as I have shown from other material in the Book. Besides confirming that conclusion, the statement (Kauṣī. IV. 1) points at the same time to the generically Vrātya affinities of the countries mentioned].

# § 5. Some Reflections on "Mohenjo-daro and the Indus Civilization."

The excavations at Mohenjo-daro and Harappā have convinced Sir John Marshall of the existence between 3250 B. C. and 2750 B. C. at the former place, and for several centuries more at the latter, of a highly advanced city civilization presenting the same fundamental features as do the other riverine civilizations of the Chalcolithic Age in Egypt and Mesopotamia. This civilization, Sir John finds, disappeared under a deposit of sand and silt a thousand years before the advent into India of the nomadic Vedic Aryans with their village culture of a far more primitive type as compared with the one that had perished.

The two civilizations, he finds, stood at the two ends of the bronze and copper age, cut off in the manner stated from all possibility of direct contact, and must have been entirely unrelated genetically or by cultural contact of any kind.

Unless this ancient civilization should be supposed to have survived this general catastrophe somewhere in the Panjab, a thousand years' interval of time and several feet of clay and sand stood effectively between the two civilizations, barring all chances of inter-penetration.

The "Dasyus" whom the Vedic Aryans appear from the earlier Rgveda mantras to have fought and absorbed in their new homes in the Panjab represented a still lower form of culture than the Vedic Aryans'. It is impossible to imagine that these people could be the inheritors of the departed Indus culture. That culture must have been as unknown to the Dasyus as to the Aryans themselves. The Vedic Aryan mantras, even after this Dasyu absorption, show no consciousness whatever of the existence of this A31.

older and superior culture and even of its very home, the delta of the Indus river.

The Vedic Aryans clearly did not meet any surviving representatives of this ancient culture in the Panjab for the simple and sufficient reason that none had in fact survived.

The artifacts exhumed at Mohenjo-daro and Harappā however exhibit elements of a religious life so remarkably like some of those to be found in the later Vedas, the Brāhmaṇas, the Upaniṣads and the Purāṇas, a literature which grew up entirely on the soil of the basins of the Jamuna and the Ganges rivers, that Sir John Marshall has been led to hazard the guess that the Indus culture must have been the lineal progenitor of this later Hinduism, which flourished in the Eastern river valleys.

The assumption is entirely unwarranted. The literature which grew up in the Eastern river basins simply proves the existence in these regions of an indigenous local culture possessing nearly all the features of the Indus religion and others besides. That literature proves further that absorption into the fabric of the Vedic religion of these non-Aryan elements took place in these Eastern regions and not in the Panjab. The synthesis, I have demonstrated, was effected in Magadha in the first instance, to be carried westward later into the Madhyadesa.

The following observations of Sir John Marshall are highly significant in this connection:

"That it (the Indus civilization) did not extend much beyond the land watered by the Indus and the Great Mihrān and their tributaries is probable enough. Other civilizations of this age are mainly confined to the riverine valleys on which they arose; and there is no reason to suppose that the Indus civilization was an exception to this rule. Nevertheless, it is difficult to believe that while the Panjab and Sind were in possession of this highly advanced culture, the valleys of the Jamuna and the Ganges, of the Narbadda and the Tapti, could have been far behind them."

The evidence furnished by the later Vedas and post-Vedic literature in general is conclusive that the Eastern river basins possessed a culture which on many points was not only not behind but a good deal in advance of that disclosed by the artifacts exhumed in the Indus valley (if the script material, upon the contents of which it is premature to dogmatise, be for the present left, as it must be, out of consideration). Besides the Siva-Durga cult in which it is possible to find implicit the Sankhya Puruşa-Prakrti dualism, phallism so abhorrent to the Vedic Aryans, and stone and animal worship of a kind unknown to the Vedic Arvans, the Eastern culture has other elements centering round the doctrine of Karma-Vada or the Transmigration of Souls after Death, the very keystone of the arch upon which the Varnāśramadharma, the Upaniṣad Vedānta, the Darsanas and every form of Hindu and Buddhistic religious belief have rested. There is no reason indeed for supposing that the Eastern riverine culture lagged behind the culture of the Indus valley, if indeed it did not overpass The higher forms of philosophical and theological reasoning of indubitably non-Aryan origin entered into the Indo-Aryan scheme of life in the Jamuna and the Gangetic river basins.

It is by no means to be regretted that, whether from necessity or from choice, the Vedic Aryans had to turn their backs as completely as they did on this civilization of the Indus Valley, if thereby it was enabled to meet and mingle with a still superior culture farther East. The synthetic culture whereto Vedic Aryan elements and elements derived

from non-Aryan sources both contributed became all the richer for this historical accident. Such meagre archaeological evidence as has been found in the Eastern valleys (in Sir John Marshall's judgment) entirely supports this evidence from literature.

Against this is Professor Langdon's hypothesis that the Vedic Aryans got their Brāhmi script at any rate (the vehicle of their prolific literature of later days) from the Indus people. If they did, it is remarkable that there should not be archaeological remains of this script of any date between 2800 B.C. when this borrowing must, if at all, have taken place and the 4th century B.C. when this Brāhmi script is for the first time met with on some coins in Northern India and a century later in inscriptions of proved Māgadhic origin. Professor Langdon's theory of the derivation of the Brāhmi from the Indus script certainly stands upon extremely slender foundations. The script itself presumably had an Eastern Vrātya origin.

The above considerations, I think, provide sufficient justification for my affirming that the provisional conclusions recorded by Sir John Marshall in the first volume of his Book, not only do not militate against mine, arrived at as they have been by following other clues and according to methods which are entirely different from his and his colleagues', but they go in material measures to corroborate and confirm those conclusions.

Having had their attention concentrated on the Indus valley, neither Sir John nor Professor Langdon could resist a natural bias in favour of making the Punjab itself out as the meeting place of the two opposing cultures. Sir John's suggestion that the Indus culture survived at odd places till the Aryans came upon the scene flies right in the face of all data furnished by the RgVedic literature. Professor Langdon must on his part make the Vedic Aryans

autocthonous in the face not only of data furnished by that literature but against a consensus of scholarly opinion, that the Vedic Āryans were foreigners who descended into the plains of the Punjab from their highland homes in the Hindu Kush and Irān. And every consideration, archaeological and anthropological, of reason and probability, appears to me to support the widely accepted view that the date of this descent cannot be pushed back beyond the second millennium B.C., and that it is likely to have been nearer 1500 than to 2000 B.C.

<sup>1924),</sup> particularly at pp. 101 and 111; also the fine summary of the results of recent researches in the field in H. T. Fleure's "The Races of Mankind" (1927), particularly at pp 52.55, which are highly confirmatory of those arrived at by me.

## Post-Script

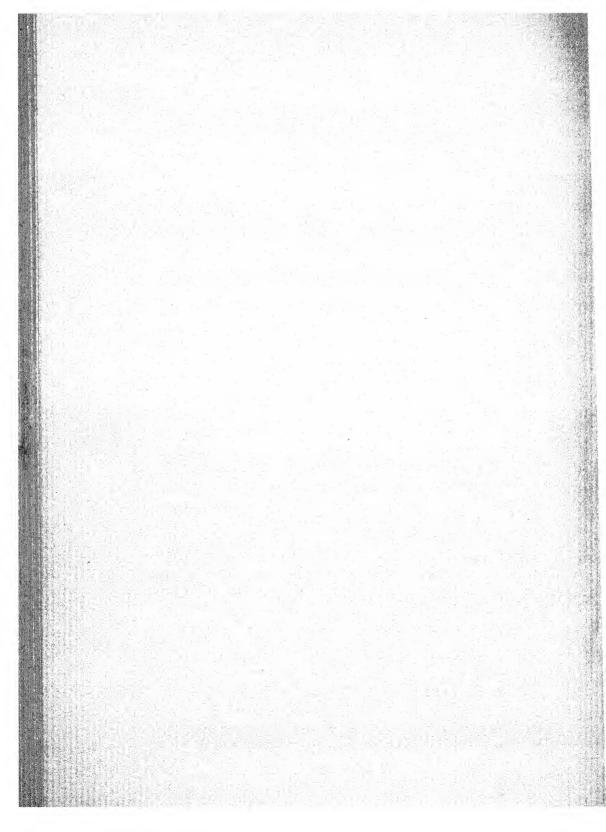
In the Census Report of India, 1931, Part I, Mr. J. H. Hutton of the Indian Civil Service has made a quite creditable attempt to collect and co-ordinate all the available data and speculations concerning the racial and cultural origin of the Hindus of Northern India. His final conclusion is so remarkbly in agreement with mine that I cannot refrain from reproducing it in his own language.

At p. 457, he writes: "The early culture of the Mediterraneans and Armenoids in India may perhaps be most conveniently described as pre-Vedic Hinduism. Although this culture disappeared from the Indus Valley, it must have survived across the Jamna with sufficient vigour to reach to the Rig-Vedic Aryans whom it probably supplied with a script, and whose religious beliefs it ultimately submerged in its own philosophy".

Of the varieties of speculations discussed (the author adding some of his own) the one which has called for consideration by reason of its relation to a speculation of my own (p. 13n) is where, starting from cues supplied by Chanda, he modifies Hoernle's theory of a first and second wave of Indo-Aryan immigration (the Vedic-Aryan invasion of the Panjab being according to it the prior in point of time followed later by an Eastern migration across Chitral) and supposes that the Vedic Aryan invasion must have been of later date, having been preceded long ages back by an earlier invasion of the Indus Valley by an Alpine people from the Pamirs led by proto-Nordic chieftains who, he assumes, had succeeded in imposing on them a variety of their Aryan language, somewhat after the manner of

the Nordic rulers who appear to have imposed themselves and their Kharian tongue upon their Alpinic and Armenoid Mitanni subjects in Mesopotamia in the 3rd millennium B.C. This is the "Pisācha" language of which the invaders have left traces wherever they had gone in what is represented in Grierson's theory by the "outer band" of Indo-Aryan languages (pp 357-269, 450).

Not having had opportunities, previously to this. of studying the speculations of Hoernle, Grierson and Chanda. I had made a shot at it of my own in the foot-note aforesaid, which supposed the Eastern riverine Vrātva Rājanvas to have entered India from the north, whence passing down the Gangetic Valleys they had (I suggested) imposed themselves and their variety of the Arvan tongue (the Pisacha) upon the people they settled amongst and ruled. In the absence of knowledge too of the Pamir clue, I supposed these invaders to have come across China. I concede the prior claim of the Pamirs. But whilst I have nothing decisive to set against Mr. Hutton's suppositions, I should just as soon be prepared to accept a modification of Hoernle's theory which would place the entry via Chitral of the "Pisacha"-speaking people as a very much earlier event than the invasion of the Panjab by the Vedic Aryans. I feel very pleased indeed, before my book has left the printers, to have had my attention drawn to Mr. Hutton's speculations by Prof. S. N. Bose to whom I have already expressed my obligations in the Preface.



#### GENERAL INDEX

ābhichārikaņi in the AV, 85, 111; not unknown in Aryan land, 97.

Abhimanyu episode (Mahābhārata), genuine saga, 212.

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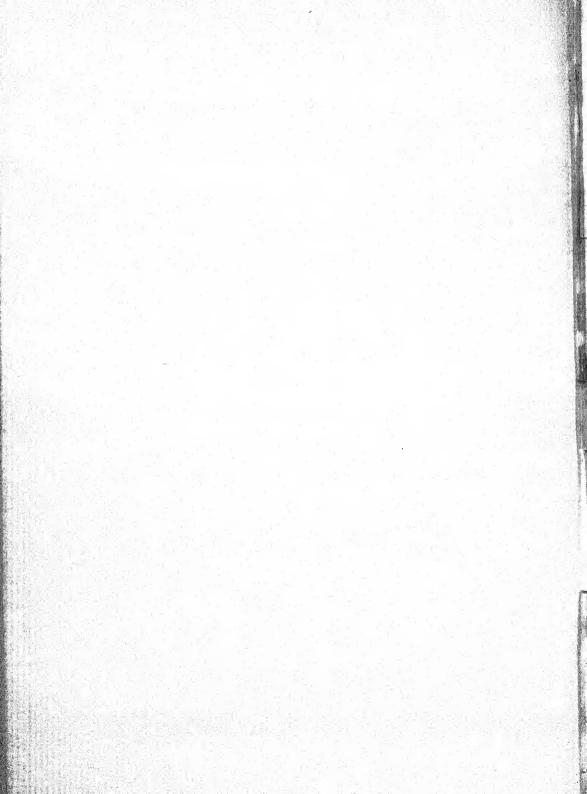
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